The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 30, 1891.

The Week.

SOME whimpering is observable in the tone of the leading Republican newspapers on the subject of the national finances. Secretary Foster, it is stated, will soon issue a circular to the banks and "to large employers of labor," offering to exchange the fractional silver in the Treasury, amounting to something over $20,000,000, for paper. In other words, he finds a necessity confronting him of using an unavailable non-legal-tender fund to meet the current expenses of Government. It is not likely that either the banks or the large employers of labor will consent to any such exchange. The fractional coin is just as unavailable to the banks as it is to the Government. There is plenty of fractional coin in circulation now. When a cup is full, it will hold no more. If this twenty millions could be poured in, it would overflow and come back to the Treasury for redemption, and it would have to be redeemed too. The large employers of labor, if they are wise, will be chary about passing off upon their employees a kind of money that is not legal tender for more than ten dollars in one payment, and is bulky and inconvenient also. Such a course would be strongly provocative of strikes and would besides be politically unwise, since it would acquaint the working classes with the fact that the Government, which was left by the Cleveland Administration with an enormous surplus, is already in financial straits.

Near the close of the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, Senator Edmunds said in public debate that he apprehended that there would be a Treasury deficit before the 1st of July, 1891. That condition is evidently nearer than the public had supposed. What with pension profligacy, public-building profligacy, the direct-tax refund, and other squandering, coupled with the repeal of the raw-sugar duties and the increase of the tariff on other things, with the avowed purpose of preventing importations, the Secretary is in danger of seeing his last dollar unless he sells bonds to replenish his cash. This he has authority to do if he has the courage also. In the natural course of things he will be obliged to trench upon the $100,000,000 gold fund held for the redemption of the greenbacks. We say he will be obliged to do this, because he is obliged to pay his debts as they mature. The law has provided for a contingency of this kind by authorizing him to sell bonds to maintain specie payments. Accordingly, whenever he is for any reason short of money to redeem greenbacks with, he is not only authorized but required to sell bonds for this purpose. It may be a trial to his nerves, but it would be a greater trial if he should go to protest. There is a matter of $54,000,000 of 4½ per cent. bonds maturing on the first of September, and already we hear of plans to extend these bonds instead of paying them. This implies that the Sinking-Fund Law is not to be executed until Congress meets. This law requires the Secretary to redeem about $49,000,000 of the public debt during the fiscal year, which begins July 1, 1891. If the law were executed, it would very nearly extinguish the 4½ per cent. debt. But evidently it will not be executed in a hurry. The Secretary can wait till Congress meets. Then he can make recommendations as to the repeal of the Sinking-Fund Law *and* the imposition of new taxes. Altogether the financial situation of the Government is as bad as its worst enemy could desire. Fortunately this badness has not extended to private business, and it is not necessary that it should. The Treasury may be on its knees to the banks and the "large employers of labor" without the latter being any the worse for it.

President Harrison's remark at Galveston about subsidies to shipping, that, whether we approve of the principle or not, we must go into the business, inasmuch as "all other nations do," is a good illustration of the uncritical use of facts. It is very easy, for instance, to point to the example of France, and show how her generous bounty laws, for both the building and sailing of ships, have apparently had a strikingly good effect. In 1873 the French flag flew over only 292 steamers of above 100 tons, while the number had increased by last June to 471. Nothing could be more conclusive: no ships without subsidies. But how about the growth of the German merchant marine during the same time, without subsidies? In 1873 the steamers of German ownership above 100 tons numbered 200; last June they numbered 689. In 1888, Germany without subsidies succeeded to the second place among the nations using steam navigation, and France, under her bounty system, yielded it. Nor has the latter been outstripped solely in the number of craft and gross tonnage; she has nothing afloat to place beside the *Spree* and *Havel* of the Lloyds, or the *Columbia* and *Augusta Victoria* of the Hamburg-American Line. This splendid transatlantic service has been built up absolutely without subsidies. Why have the French lagged so far behind? It would interest President Harrison to read the explanation given by an old French captain in a late number of the *Monde Économique*. The trouble is all in the French subsidies, says this practical sailor; with a bounty assured for fifteen years, the steamship lines settle back in luxurious ease, let well enough alone, and leave it to unsubsidized Germans to utilize the latest refinements of shipbuilding. In fact, before advancing to the experience of "all other nations," it would do the advocate of subsidies a world of good to make a close study of the experience of France and Germany. It would at least show him how misleading and dangerous is an inference from an isolated set of facts.

A correspondent calls our attention, apropos of the New Orleans massacre, to the recently decided case of De Brissot and others against Venezuela, in which the defence interposed by the Venezuelan Government (*i. e.*, that the officers of the States of Apure and Zamora, by whom the injuries complained of were alleged to have been committed, were outside the scope of Federal authority and control) was overruled by the United States and Venezuelan Commission that closed its labors in Washington last September. All the passengers on board the steamer *Apure*, which was attacked at Apurito by forces from the adjoining State of Zamora, were Venezuelans. The steamer was the property of the Orinoco Steam Navigation Co. of New York, and the officers of the steamer, De Hammer and De Brissot, who were killed, and Stackpole, who was wounded, were citizens of the United States. There was no discrimination: several casualties occurred among the Venezuelans on board the steamer. Two of the three Commissioners held the Venezuelan Government liable for its failure to put the leaders of the attacking party on trial, although it was claimed for the Venezuelan Government that, by the Constitution of Venezuela, they were not subject to the Federal jurisdiction. The Venezuelan Government was held liable for damages by a majority of the Commissioners. There is no doubt that the Federal bond is looser in Venezuela than in the United States, and the Federal Government, therefore, less responsible for the doings or misdoings of the several States. Our latest treaty with Venezuela, that of 1867, provides for a commission such as has been sitting in the case above mentioned for the adjustment of American claims, whether of individuals or of corporations, against the Government of Venezuela, and we can only account for the late decision on the theory that the Commission holds it to be a simple matter for the Federal Government to coerce a State, owing to the long familiarity of the Republic with intestine wars and commotions.

The Republican National League, in session at Cincinnati, adopted on Thursday a platform which consisted of "glittering generalities," and elected as President ex-Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson, after a letter had been read in which he constructed his own platform and indicated his idea of the issues which the Republican party should make prominent next year. This Clarkson platform is a most remarkable outburst of "gush." There is no end of rhetoric, but hardly a single defi-

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nite idea in it. Take, for example, this passage:

"There are questions lying nearer the hearts of the American people to-day than the price of a tin cup or whether the color of the money of the realm shall be yellow or white. The greater questions are those of human liberty, the protection of the weak in their rights, the insurance, under the Constitution, of a republican form of government to the several States now without it, and as absolute security and peace to the poorest citizen and family on the Yazoo as to the richest citizen on the Hudson."

The insurance of absolute security and peace to the citizen, whether he be a poor man on the Yazoo or a millionaire on the Hudson, is a mouth-filling phrase; but the Supreme Court, in annulling the Civil-Rights Act for unconstitutionality, declared that the Federal Government had nothing to do with the insurance of security and peace to the citizen anywhere, and that any attempt by Congress to usurp such power would be promptly pronounced null and void, as in conflict with the Constitution.

The Michigan Legislature, which has a Democratic majority in the House, and a Democratic majority in the Senate also when the four Patrons of Husbandry vote with them, is just passing a law which makes a radical change in the manner of choosing Presidential electors in that State. The bill has already passed the House, and there is no doubt that the Senate will concur this week. Its effect upon the Electoral College of 1892 will be so marked that the whole country is interested in the measure. The Constitution provides that "each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress." For many years after the establishment of the Government, the common practice was for the Legislature to choose directly the whole number to which the State was entitled. In a few of the States, however, other systems were followed which tended in the direction of a decision by popular vote. Thus, in Massachusetts the people of each Congressional district nominated three electors, of whom the Legislature chose one, the two electors-at-large being also chosen by the Legislature. Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina for some time chose all the district electors by popular vote in the districts, without any interposition of the Legislature.

There has always been more or less complaint against the existing system by which all the electoral votes of a State go to one candidate, even if he receives only a few more than half of the popular vote. In the early days of the Republic the party in power did not hesitate to make sudden changes in the way of choosing electors when it saw a chance of seizing an advantage. Thus, in 1812 Vermont, New Jersey, and North Carolina all had laws by which Presidential electors were to be chosen by popular vote. But just before the day fixed for the election the Legislature of each State repealed the existing law, and assumed the right to choose the electors themselves. In Vermont and North Carolina it was a Democratic majority in the Legislature which did this; in New Jersey, a Federalist. The opposition carried Michigan over the Republicans last fall, but they doubt their ability to repeat the performance in 1892. They feel reasonably sure, however, of carrying about half of the twelve Congressional districts, and one of the two large districts into which they will divide the commonwealth for the choice of the two electors-at-large. The chance of securing all fourteen electoral votes in a popular election is so small that they have concluded to make sure of several of the number by introducing the district system of choice. The enactment of this Michigan law throws Michigan into the category of doubtful States for 1892. The only sure thing about it is that the Republicans will not have all the fourteen electoral votes. The Democrats will have some, because they always carry more than one of the Congressional districts, but how many nobody can tell. If the result elsewhere throughout the country should be very close, we may have to wait for a careful count of the votes in some of the Michigan districts before we shall know who has been elected President.

Ohio is the latest State—the twenty-fourth—to adopt a ballot-reform law. The measure, so far as we can judge from the outlines of it published in the Ohio papers, is similar in its provisions to the Indiana and Maine laws. It provides for the Australian system of nominations and compartment voting, with exclusively official ballots, the names of all candidates to be grouped by parties in parallel columns upon a blanket ballot. The law has been secured in spite of the opposition of the leading Republican journals of the State, which have steadily ridiculed the Australian system as the "kangaroo reform." The popular demand for it was so great, however, that the Democratic majority in the Legislature had the aid of many members of the Republican minority in the final victory. With Indiana, Maine, and Ohio holding their elections under the reform system, it can be said at last that the chief citadels of corrupt voting in this country have been carried by the reformers.

Since the new Treasury ruling in respect to carpet wools went into effect, the duty on them has been advanced to nearly 100 per cent. ad valorem. And still the Ohio wool-growers are not satisfied. They have induced the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint a committee to recommend changes of the samples by which wools are classified for duty. Probably in the end they will get Bagdad, East India, and other coarse wools put into the first and second classes, dutiable at 11 and 12 cents per pound unwashed. Then by applying the washing clause and the sorting clause, they will get the duty up to 33 and 36 cents per pound respectively, which would be prohibitory. At all events, that is what they are aiming at, as Judge Lawrence is candid enough to say. Meanwhile, Ohio wool continues to decline. The remarkably low figure of 32 cents per pound was recently quoted in Boston, and unreported sales were made which were thought to be close to 31 cents. This is a decline of 7 cents per pound since the McKinley Tariff Bill became a law. But some other American wools have advanced in price. The class known as "Territory" has been steadily improving towards the character of clothing wool, thus putting further off the day that Judge Lawrence predicts, and Uncle Jerry Rusk sighs for, when we shall "produce all of our own carpet-wool." The far Western wool-grower, with a perversity unexampled in the world's history, works and breeds towards high-priced instead of low-priced wool. This carries him further and further away from the rôle assigned to him by Lawrence and Rusk. It has had another effect, which none of the parties in interest anticipated at first. It has evolved a wool that works admirably as a mixture with Australian. Hence the large importations from Australia (double those of any former year), and the advance in the price of Territory wool. Hence also the comparative neglect of Ohio fleeces. What Judge Lawrence really needs is not a duty of 100, or 200, or 300 per cent. on carpet wools, but a law to prevent manufacturers from mixing different kinds of wools together. It is this infernal Australian-Territory compound that is doing the mischief.

Until the details of the so-called reciprocity agreement with Spain are made public, it is of course impossible to say just how far they go. The telegrams from Madrid have been sufficiently confusing. But, in any case, it is altogether ridiculous for the *Tribune* to say that "American diplomacy" had given Spain the alternative of reciprocity or a revolution in Cuba. Cuban complaints of the commercial policy of Spain do not date from yesterday or the day before, nor have they any very great connection with the reciprocity clause of the McKinley Bill. There is one feature of that measure which mightily afflicts the Cubans, and that is the increased taxes on tobacco. But that article does not figure in the reciprocity clause, and it is significantly reported from Madrid that negotiations over tobacco have been deferred to a later date. If Mr. Blaine could offer Cuba free tobacco in return for free flour, then indeed it might be a question of a revolution were Spain to refuse. But that offer can now only be made by means of a reciprocity treaty properly so called, and Spain will believe in it when it passes the Senate. Meanwhile, it is not to be supposed for a minute that Cánovas was frightened by any threat of imposing duties on Cuban sugar. He remarked some months ago to a Cuban delegation that the November elec-

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tions in this country showed the popular disapproval of the McKinley Bill, and that there was no occasion to live in fear and trembling on account of it. The truth is, Spain has been for ten years steadily liberalizing her commercial policy in regard to her colonies, and these latest concessions to the interests of colonial trade are but one step more in a path long travelled. A sliding scale of duties which Cuban products were to pay in the Peninsula was made law in 1882, under the terms of which all duties whatsoever were to disappear by July 1, 1892. And the same law provided for the abolition of the Cuban tariff, as against Spanish products, on July 1, 1891.

The latest case of "journalism" is that which the *Herald* supplies by censuring Mr. Cleveland for denying the accuracy of an interview with himself on the part of Mr. Stephens, the State Treasurer of Missouri, which the *Herald* published in its evening newspaper and then transferred to its morning newspaper, the *Herald* proper. The interview was on the subject of silver and silver legislation, and it went far to contradict and neutralize the letter which Mr. Cleveland wrote to Mr. E. Ellery Anderson some weeks ago. Mr. Stephens denies that he has had any interview with any reporter, and he surmises that somebody has had an interview with somebody who has had an interview with him (Stephens), but that the interviewer in the second degree has got things badly mixed in the published report. Mr. Cleveland contented himself with a general denial of the accuracy of the pretended interview. Now what says Jefferson Brick in the columns of the *Herald*? Why, that "Mr. Cleveland believes himself to have been misrepresented by Mr. Stephens." Neither Jefferson nor anybody else connected with the *Herald* has seen Stephens at all, or had a word with him. But the sin of believing himself to have been misrepresented by Mr. Stephens must be expiated. So Jefferson asks whether Mr. Cleveland "has a silver policy for the East and another for the West and South." Then, waxing righteously indignant at the skulking, double-tongued Cleveland, he begs to inquire whether he remembers "the fate of the accommodating weather-vane that presented itself to all the winds of heaven, and swung serenely upon its pivot until an unaccommodating cyclone came an unexpected way and carried it off into the uttermost part of nothing." That is the right way to put it. Jefferson never said anything better than that. He makes it hot by anticipation for all other persons who have not been interviewed by the *Herald*, and who think that they are liable to be misrepresented by interviews imputed to them.

The increase of the population of Rhode Island during the decade between 1880 and 1890 was absolutely greater than in any preceding decade, and relatively greater than in any except those between 1840 and 1850 and 1870 and 1880. The census bulletin giving the population of the State by minor civil divisions shows, however, that this increase was not evenly distributed. Of the thirty-six cities and towns which existed in 1880, thirteen, even after allowance is made for the effect of change in boundaries, have actually lost inhabitants. Examination shows that, as in New Hampshire and Massachusetts, this loss has fallen most heavily on the smallest towns. Again, in Vermont, of the 244 cities and towns whose population was separately returned both in 1880 and in 1890, more than three-fourths (or 186) had fewer inhabitants in the latter year than in the former. Essex is the only county in which the majority of the towns have not lost population in the decade. In the six southernmost counties of the State more than six-sevenths (or 111 out of 129 towns) show a loss, while in the two southeastern counties of Windsor and Windham, out of 47 towns only 5 (or less than one-ninth) have more inhabitants now than they had a decade since. As in the other New England States, the rule has been that to them that have shall be given, and the gains have been in the larger towns.

The English Ministry have apparently got themselves into another nasty little mess in the Evelyn vs. Hurlbert case. Mr. W. H. Hurlbert was sued by an actress named Evelyn for breach of promise of marriage. She had no adequate proof of the promise, but she had a batch of 150 rather disgusting letters to her in what she and other witnesses swore was the plaintiff's handwriting. He said that they were not written by him, but by a man named "Wilfrid Murray," who was at one time his secretary, and had learned to imitate his handwriting so successfully that he himself could not detect the difference. But he could produce no one who knew or had ever seen this Murray, and the Judge in his charge commented strongly on the improbability of the story. The jury thereupon found a special verdict—not "for the defendant" generally, but that "there was no promise of marriage," leaving the authorship of the letters an open question. The public then said, naturally enough, that, although it was plain there had been monstrous perjury on one side or the other, the verdict left it unsettled which it was, and that there must be further inquiry in the shape of a criminal prosecution. This criminal prosecution can only be instituted, however, at the instance or with the permission of the Attorney-General, and the Attorney-General, in answer to a question in the House of Commons on Thursday night, said the Government were considering the matter. Here is where the politics comes in. The Attorney-General, Sir Richard Webster, was, apparently very indiscreetly, as in the Pigott case, Hurlbert's counsel, so that he is now considering whether he will prosecute his own client or the plaintiff for perjury in a case in which he was himself engaged professionally. From this it would appear that Sir Richard had not learned wisdom from his annoying experience before the Parnell Commission.

The explanation of his taking Hurlbert's brief, however, seems easy. Hurlbert, who has been for some years resident in England, took it into his head, or had it put into his head by the Liberal-Unionists and Tories, to write a book on Ireland, and, although he knew nothing about Ireland, he promptly produced the book, which showed, from personal observation, that the Home-Rulers were a bad and dishonest lot, and the landlords kind, good men, and the government of Ireland an admirable one. It had a good sale, and furnished the Tories, as coming from a disinterested foreign observer, a most useful defence against the wicked Radicals and Separatists. Indeed, the *Spectator* put it on higher than merely political ground, for it said the book was the work of an "American Catholic," who was far more troubled by the moral condition of the Irish than by their economical condition. Consequently it is now of some importance to the Conservative party to keep Hurlbert up on this lofty moral plane, where the Radicals and the Separatists cannot get at his character. Hence the Attorney-General's willingness to appear in the case.

The Manipur troubles in India are apparently approaching their close, but they well illustrate the risks and difficulties attendant upon all dealings between civilized and barbarous men. The rebellious captain of the half-armed, undisciplined soldiery of one of the most insignificant States has been able to inflict a sharp blow and serious humiliation upon the powerful government of a great Asiatic empire. Just fifty years ago the British Resident in Afghanistan, Sir William Macnaghten, was seized and assassinated at an interview with the leaders of an Afghan insurrection; and twelve years ago, Sir Louis Cavagnari with all his escort. But Afghanistan is to Manipur what a tame cat is to a tiger: if one goes among bloodthirsty fanatics, the slightest imprudence is fatal. There were, indeed, symptoms that the Manipur usurper would fight rather than surrender; yet English officers are so accustomed to carry matters with a high hand and to trust in the enormous power behind them for overawing resistance, that the dispositions for arresting him were evidently made carelessly. The result has been a lamentable loss of life, the discomfiture of a detachment of British troops, and a temporary fall of British credit among the natives of India, who do not dislike to see some of the conceit taken out of the unconquerable Englishman. It is not improbable that the affair may cause some fermentation among the half-subdued tribes in the vicinity of Manipur, and we may hear of sporadic outbreaks on the two borders of the wild country that lies between India and Burmah, which contains a peculiarly restless and intractable population. All overt resistance to the advancing reinforcements will be easily put down, and Manipur itself will be occupied without trouble; but the English reputation for skill, adroit daring, and for the favor of Fortune—a goddess much beloved in India—has received an awkward scratch.

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SECRETARY TRACY'S DUTY.

When Secretary Tracy put Commander Reiter in command of the *Thetis*, a very attractive post, the impression made by the act on the public was very well expressed by that ardent Republican journal, the Philadelphia *Press*, as follows:

"The restoration of Commander Reiter to a command in the navy is not as complete a reinstatement nor as gracious as the Secretary of the Navy ought to have made it. The vessel assigned to him is inferior to the one from which he was taken. Nevertheless, the public will be disposed to look upon Reiter's reinstatement as an acknowledgment, partial and tardy though it be, that the hasty action of last January, under which Commander Reiter was censured and suspended, was ill advised and unjust."

But the Secretary, instead of letting the matter be just where the *Press* puts it, tries to minimize the importance of his tardy and imperfect atonement, by insinuating that he still thinks Commander Reiter unfit to command a man-of-war, and has therefore only given him a surveying-ship, "which does not carry a single gun."

All this is very unworthy of the Secretary, and most mischievous as regards the service. Nothing could more effectively illustrate the danger of introducing politics into the management of the military and naval and diplomatic service than this Barrundia incident has done. Our diplomatic service is, unhappily, now and has long been wholly given over to the politicians, so that when Mr. Blaine determined to make capital out of Barrundia's death, and in doing so to sacrifice Mr. Mizner, there was, although Mr. Mizner had a perfect answer to Blaine's charges against him, little or nothing for the outside world to say. Mr. Mizner is an independent man, who knew well when he accepted a foreign mission what he was about, and to what risks such service in our country would expose him. He knew there was no security of tenure in it, and he knew that when Mr. Blaine was placed at the head of the State Department, he (Mizner) might any day be "decapitated" with or without cause.

But hitherto the army and navy have been kept out of politics. The officers in both services have had nothing to fear from political jobs and intrigues as long as they did their duty as defined by the United States statutes and by the regulations. Secretary Tracy, in order to help Mr. Blaine in his jingo venture in Guatemala, broke through this valuable tradition, and proceeded to sacrifice a naval commander on the same altar as Mizner. He wrote to Commander Reiter insulting letters, and inflicted on him illegally, as the best authorities believe, a public reprimand in time of peace without trial before a court-martial. When the matter came to be examined, it was shown clearly enough that he had no case in law or morals against Commander Reiter. No lawyer and no newspaper of any weight came to his aid. When assailed in the House by Mr. Dalzell, he had no one to put up against him but Mr. Lodge, who made a bunkum and irrelevant speech, and attempted one bit of deception, by giving his audience to understand that Hall, in his 'International Law,' made a distinction between the duty of a naval commander in a foreign port towards a fugitive reaching him by sea and one reaching him by the shore.

The debate left the Secretary in an extremely uncomfortable position, because it revealed the fact that he had wantonly and unjustifiably attacked a subordinate officer, in both his private and professional character, without a shadow of right. His conduct since then explains why the law and usage put officers in the military and naval services under the protection of courts-martial. Their reputation as officers is their whole fortune and all they have to bequeath to their children. Therefore, says the law, it shall not be assailed except before an impartial court, where the accused can be fully heard and have the advice of his friends in making his defence. It shall not in time of peace be subjected to any one person's caprice, or passion, or conceit of power, or pride of opinion. The decisions of courts-martial can be revised, overruled, or modified, but there is no appeal from the abuse or obloquy or degradation inflicted by an individual superior, who may be an enemy, or an intriguer, or a party politician. No officer shall, therefore, be placed at any one man's mercy. Could there be a better illustration than the Reiter case of the wisdom of all this?

The effect of the affair on either Gen. Tracy's reputation or Commander Reiter's has, however, comparatively small importance. The public aspect of it is of vast importance, and the Secretary must be urged to deal with it. Both Mr. Mizner and Commander Reiter acted in the Barrundia affair not only in accordance with the law of nations as laid down in all the text-books, and as settled by United States precedents, but with the ruling of Secretary Bayard in the Gomez case so late as 1885. Here is his despatch to Mr. Hall, then our Minister in Nicaragua:

"[No. 226.]

"Department of State,
"Washington, March 12, 1885.

"Sir: I have to acknowledge the receipt of your No. 316, of the 10th ultimo, in which you enclose copies of the correspondence between the Legation at Guatemala and Mr. Leavitt, the United States Consul at Managua, respecting the case of José Dolores Gomez, and request more definite instructions for such cases.

"It appears that Mr. Gomez, who is said to be a political fugitive from Nicaragua, voluntarily took passage at San José de Guatemala for Punta Arenas, Costa Rica, on board the Pacific Mail steamship *Honduras*, with the knowledge that the vessel would enter en route the port of San Juan del Sur, Nicaragua.

"The Government of Nicaragua, upon learning of this fact, ordered the commandant of the port of San Juan del Sur to arrest Gomez upon the arrival of the *Honduras* at that port.

. . . . . .

"It is clear that Mr. Gomez voluntarily entered the jurisdiction of a country whose laws he had violated. Under the circumstances it was plainly the duty of the Captain of the *Honduras* to deliver him up to the local authorities upon their request.

"It may safely be affirmed that when a merchant vessel of one country visits the ports of another for the purposes of trade, it owes temporal allegiance and is amenable to the jurisdiction of that country, and is subject to the laws which govern the port it visits so long as it remains, unless it is otherwise provided by treaty.

"Any exemption or immunity from local jurisdiction must be derived from the consent of that country. No such exemption is made in the treaty of commerce and navigation concluded between this country and Nicaragua on the 21st day of June, 1867.

"I am, etc., T. F. Bayard."

Now, it would appear from the action of the Department of State and of the Navy Department in the Barrundia case that both Mr. Blaine and Gen. Tracy dissent from Mr. Bayard's view of the law, and dissent with such vehemence that they consider that any officer who acts on it is punishable as for a crime or offence. If this be true—and they have taken great pains to call attention to it—they are bound to furnish both the public and the army and navy with a full and authoritative exposition of the law, as they understand it, touching the powers and duties of our naval officers commanding public ships in foreign ports. Since the Reiter case the navy is left absolutely without guidance. The officers can simply guess from what happened to Reiter, in the first instance, that they may get into trouble for not rescuing foreign fugitives from their own police; but from what has happened since he took the command of the *Thetis* they may also guess, that the only consequence of such trouble would be their transfer to a more luxurious ship without guns. So that the whole subject is surrounded with obscurity and confusion. They ought to have an official statement of the law in black and white. The abusive letters to Commander Reiter do not contain any such statement. We have pressed Secretary Tracy to give us one, but in vain. He will not even say what statute or regulation Commander Reiter has violated. This is a most dangerous situation, and if any further trouble arises out of it, Secretary Tracy will be responsible, and his responsibility will be more serious than Mr. Blaine's, because he has a very different reputation from Blaine's to maintain. He is a lawyer, and has passed until now as a sober-minded, fair-minded, and safe man.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM.

Our suggestion, week before last, that the only really practical and useful test to apply to immigrants was the English-language test, has called forth more or less comment from the press in various parts of the country. Some commend it cautiously; others think well of it, while perceiving the impossibility of getting it embodied in legislation. The Hartford *Courant* thinks it "too severe," and suggests in its stead the application to voters at the polls of the test of ability to read English. The Rutland *Herald* also proposes this test for naturalization. The New York *Press* suggests that the immigrant should be required, we presume at the wharf, "to read and write his or her own language." It may as well be said plainly, however, that no test to be applied to voters will contribute in the smallest degree to the solution of the immigration problem. When once a foreigner lands here and gets a residence, no test can long keep him from taking part in the Government. Not only are all the influences of the time opposed to restrictions on the exercise of the

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electoral franchise, but the political parties, especially in the great seats of population, are bent on making a voter as soon as possible of every foreigner they can set eyes on whose vote they think they can secure for their own side. Consequently, there is not a large city in the Union in which the managers of both parties would not combine to make nugatory at the polls any test of either intelligence or character. Both the reading and writing tests in any language would speedily be made a farce. Every party worker in a political canvass feels that the duty nearest him is to win the election, and not to save the country from ignorant or vicious voters. The only place to apply tests of fitness to the immigrant is either the port of departure or the port of arrival, before the politicians catch sight of him. If he is once let loose, all precautions about him are idle.

The *Times* offers as a substitute for our suggestion "a substantial poll-tax." It says truly: "That the immigrant was able to pay this would be evidence that he was a person of some substance and of frugal and industrious habits, and it would thus be the very best guarantee we could have that he would be a useful member of American society." In order, however, to put a substantial poll-tax into operation we should first have to make a successful fight for the principle of the thing—which would be no easy matter, for we should have to face the deep popular dislike of a property qualification. After this we should have another fight, and a more desperate one, in order to make the poll-tax "substantial." The most strenuous opposition would be offered to any sum which would really indicate previous thrift or good social standing in the Old World, and it would be backed by the enormous number of more or less successful citizens of foreign birth in various parts of the country who landed without a cent. When something of this sort was proposed in the House a few years ago, one of the members from Minnesota, a Norwegian by birth, and a prosperous and much-respected resident of the State, rose up and said that any such tax would have shut out his mother when she came here with several fatherless children. A very few such protests and illustrations would sweep the scheme away under a torrent of popular indignation. If not totally repudiated, the tax would be cut down to an amount which would simply make it a slight increase in the cost of the ocean passage.

We confess freely that our suggestion about the English-language test was an academic and not a practical suggestion. It is, in our opinion, the only test which, if applied, would accomplish the objects at which those who are most alarmed about the flood of foreign ignorance now pouring in on the country, are aiming. It is the one which a wise and benevolent despot, if put in charge of the Government at this crisis, would apply at once. It is the only one which can be defended *à priori*, *à posteriori*, and *à fortiori*. It is true it would shut out a large number of immigrants, especially Germans, who would be of great value to the country; but so would any test whatever, except idiocy or crime. Under any other test we can think of, we should reject a host of possible Andrew Jacksons, Lincolns, Grants, Greeleys, and Schurzes. Probably every shipload of immigrants contains the makings in abundance of statesmen, soldiers, and scientists of the first order. But the great objection to the English-language test is a fatal one, namely, that there is not the smallest chance of its being adopted.

One has only to read the report of the proceedings at the Republican Club Convention to see plainly that no political party will, at present at least, further a measure of exclusion on any grounds. One of the resolutions proposed the prohibition of further immigration of paupers and criminals, and "people so alien that they cannot be assimilated in the body politic." When first introduced, the Convention seemed delighted with it, but when two or three speakers from the Northwest announced that as it stood it would ruin the party in that region, the last clause was promptly stricken out. So it will be in every party convention as long as the foreign vote is as large and distinct as it is now. There will be much complaint about the conduct of Europe in pouring her floods of barbarism over the continent, and much description of its evils and horrors in Fourth of July orations and Thanksgiving sermons, but nothing will be done to check it. We are passing through a crisis of immense and rapid material development, accompanied by what may be called legislative paralysis touching all schemes of construction and purification. Vigorous legislation cannot be procured except in aid of attacks on property, or in aid of schemes for the rapid accumulation of property through some form of protection. The care of the moral and intellectual interests of the country seems to be left wholly, or almost wholly, to the colleges, the growth and development of which in every direction constitute, perhaps, the most remarkable phenomenon of the close of the century; but the effect on legislation will not be visible for some years.

THE SAVING REMNANT.

THE fact that 456,707 voters in this State, in a total of 1,460,295 who had taken the trouble to register in October of last year, declined to go to the polls in November, continues to excite attention in the press of the State. Various reasons are given for this remarkable abstention, amounting to nearly one-third of the entire registration—the most generally accepted being that advanced by us last week, namely, Republican dissatisfaction with the McKinley tariff. Several Republican commentators admit that this was a more powerful cause than any other, but declare their belief that it will not be in operation when the next election comes around, because the voters have discovered already that they allowed "Democratic clamor" to prejudice them against a bill which was really a most beneficent and wise measure.

Without discussing the probabilities of a return of these missing voters to any particular party, we wish to call the attention of the leaders of all parties to the fact that there is a very large body of voters, mainly Republican in their tendencies, who are susceptible to independent influences, and therefore do not vote blindly with their party. They have not been able to go over to the Democratic party, as many other former Republicans have gone, but have simply reached the point where they will not vote at all rather than vote their party's ticket. The Republican party can win them back only by convincing them of the wisdom of its policy. The Democratic party can gain their confidence and support only by showing them that it is more worthy of trust than the party with which they are dissatisfied. They have begun the dangerous practice of thinking in politics, and, like all other voters who have taken that step, they will never be "safe party men" again. Their minds will be open to the reasoning and appeals of independent men and journals, and the uncertainty about their conduct on election day will increase with every campaign.

It is not necessary to point out that one-third of all the voters of the State is a sufficient body to constitute a formidable balance of power. Whichever side gets the support of that third is certain to win. This is the fact in the situation in this State which ought to give reformers the highest encouragement. It is to this unmoored third that they should address their arguments for genuine ballot reform and for separate national, State, and municipal elections. Therein are to be found the voters who will listen to them, and will sooner or later follow them and carry their causes to success in spite of weak-kneed and tricky politicians in both parties. The voter who has begun to think about tariff legislation, has begun to think about the effects of other kinds of legislation, and the more he thinks the more of a menace will he become to the legislators who stand in the way of the enactment of desirable laws.

The election in this State in November is likely to turn largely on State issues. Undoubtedly the nearness of the Presidential contest of next year will have some effect, but it will scarcely be a deciding one. The tariff can only be brought in as an extraneous issue, for there will be no election for Congressmen, and no reason for introducing national issues beyond the general one of getting the moral effect of a victory for one party or another in the Presidential campaign. Gov. Hill's partisan and selfish administration of his office has not been calculated to win for his party the support of the abstaining third of last November's voters. In fact, the municipal elections of the spring showed very plainly that many thousands of the abstaining third in all parts of the State had returned to the Republican party, temporarily at least, for that party showed striking gains in nearly all localities. Whether they will remain with the party in the November elections is a point about which speculation is easy, but we should say that their conduct would be decided by what the party and its candidates stand for in the contest.

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Neither party will come out of the legislative session with such a record as will prove attractive to thinking voters. No distinctive reform measure has been passed or can be expected, and one reform measure, the Ballot Law, has been so amended that, in case the Governor approves the changes, it will be converted from an inadequate reform statute into an extremely partisan one. For this transformation, both political parties are to be held to account, for the representatives of both have united to make it. The attention of the thinking third of voters ought to be directed to the necessity of sending to Albany men who would devote their energies to giving us genuine reform in this and other directions, and the advocates of the various reforms which we have already enumerated cannot exert themselves to better purpose than by the dissemination throughout the State of educational literature on those questions. The county table of abstaining voters shows that they were pretty evenly distributed over the entire State, the proportion of absentees to the total registration being about the same in all cases. A campaign of education would be certain to bear fruit, and would be certain also to show both political parties the necessity of taking a stand either for or against the reforms in the platforms of their conventions.

MOLTKE.

THE death of Gen. von Moltke leaves a great gap in the list of distinguished military men in Europe, and presents the problem whether another hand can wield that great but complicated machine, the German Army. His career as a soldier has been as remarkable for its unlikeness to that of other renowned generals as for its wonderful successes. It has been the fashion to think a great leader of armies must be a young man in the height of physical vigor and ambition; but Moltke directed his first campaign when he was sixty-six years old. Other generals have learned their duties and tested their capacity in inferior commands in actual war, but Moltke had never been in an important battle nor commanded even a battalion in the field. He might not unfairly be described as a theoretic student of the military art, who was called upon to direct great campaigns when he was already an old man. This certainly was true so far as strategy was concerned, though the administrative work of the army might be partly learned by experience in time of peace.

He was not of titled origin, and was not made Count till the fall of Metz in 1870. Born on October 26, 1800, at Parchim, a little town in the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, he entered the Danish Army as a cadet when he was a mere boy, but was transferred into the Prussian service soon after he became of age. At thirty-two he was assigned to staff duty, in which he permanently remained. In 1835 Sultan Mahmud asked the temporary assistance of Prussian officers in the reorganization of the Turkish Army, and Moltke was one of those who were appointed to this service. By the Sultan's request he was allowed to remain in Turkey till 1839, when, on Mahmud's death, he returned to the Prussian staff. In this interval he had advised and directed the improvement of the Turkish fortresses in Bulgaria, and the intelligence with which this had been done was very significantly acknowledged by the Russians nearly twenty years later. On his return home he published in 1841 a memoir, on the condition of Turkey, which is still an authority in matters pertaining to the "sick man's" estate.

In all this there was nothing strikingly different from the experience of other well-instructed staff officers of his time. The long peace which followed the downfall of the first Napoleon continued unbroken, and though all the great Powers kept up their immense standing armies, there was little for the ambitious staff officer to do but to perfect the administration of the peace establishment and perfect himself in the theory of his art. At forty-two Moltke was only major in the staff, though noted as an officer who was reported to have mastered and well digested everything that had been written on the art of war, ancient or modern. He had practical familiarity with and easy use of seven languages, and was a clear-headed and indefatigable student.

In person he was of medium height, slender rather than stout, but compact, vigorous, and active. He had the genius of system and the rare faculty of enforcing his own ideas of order and accuracy, without losing the character of amiability and comradeship. His talents were recognized, and for the thirteen years preceding 1859 he was for the most part the military adjutant of one of the royal princes, or chief of staff of a corps. At the last-named date he was made Chief of Staff of the Army with the rank of Lieutenant-General, and then, as he was entering his sixtieth year, his great career may be said to have begun. Yet hardly another career of modern times shows so plainly the effect of long and systematic training for the precise work he had to do. For half-a-century he had been fitting himself for this thing, and seems to have followed resolutely such a regimen of body and mind as would be likely to keep all his powers unimpaired, and preserve for him the physical strength and mental elasticity which might best realize the proverbial "old head on young shoulders." When we follow him in the Bohemian campaign of 1866 against Austria, and the French campaign of 1870–71, it requires a positive and conscious effort for us to realize that before these great events were over he was an old man of seventy.

The reorganization of the Prussian army was not the work of one man or of one generation. It began in 1813 under Stein and Scharnhorst, and has been steadily progressive. It does not appear that Moltke has made any radical changes in the system. A succession of able war ministers, ending in Gen. von Roon, had brought the organization to a high pitch of accuracy and harmony, and Moltke's preeminence consists in his having been the man to direct and handle the great army in actual war, with a systematic skill in strategy and a strength of grasp in the multitudinous details which should be worthy of the splendid organization itself. King William doubtless spoke from his own complete knowledge of the fact when, in the banquet after the surrender at Sedan, he toasted Gen. von Roon as the minister who had whetted the sword of Germany, and Gen. von Moltke as the arm that had wielded it.

Moltke's method of wielding it, however, was only possible by reason of his having prepared the way for it by a long course of education and discipline of the officers who were to carry out any plan of campaign. He was himself a lucid and attractive lecturer, and succeeded in inspiring the staff schools with an enthusiastic interest in their work. He systematized the knowledge efficient officers should possess, put them in the way of getting at it in every department, and taught them how to make it practically available. A constant interchange of line and staff duties kept the staff at ease in the actual discipline, drill, and handling of troops, and in the administration of the business of each corps and division. Special talents were marked and recognized wherever they appeared, but no officer was excused from responsibility for the most accurate and prompt performance of every duty pertaining to his post, whether high or low.

He made a study of the cause and cure of the common discrepancy between the nominal and actual numbers in an army. The detailing of men from the ranks for administrative duties was practically abolished. Teamsters were enlisted for that duty, and formed a corps by themselves, including a certain number of train guards. Stretcher-bearers and ambulance men were organized in the same way. So were hospital attendants and the like. The battalion must mean so many effective men under arms whenever a campaign should open, and the officers in command were held strictly responsible for the agreement between the figures and the fact. The looseness of administration in France turned out to be so great that hardly two-thirds of the nominal strength of the army could be assembled under the colors, while the German force corresponded accurately with the staff estimates, and was renewed from the depots, the reserves, and the *Landwehr* with mathematical certainty and regularity.

Nothing was left to chance, little to the invention or the inspiration of the moment. It was intended that the arms of the German soldier should be, if possible, better than those of his enemy; at least, they should be as good. It was intended that his drill, equipment, physical condition, and mental and moral forces should all be superior. It was intended that a superior number of these equally brave, equally strong, equally armed men should meet the enemy at the critical points. The means of locomotion by railway or on foot, the scientific use of these means, the capacity of trains, the endurance of men's bodies, were all calculated as the physicist calculates forces and resistances in the laboratory, and were perfected with a scientific care which should make the practical campaign in the field as certain to realize the plan as the skilful professor's experiment in public realizes the theory elaborated in his study. In all this Moltke was the professor of the art of war; the army, the staff, the telegraph, and all the tremendous military engines of modern warfare were the apparatus by which he exhibited to the world the startling demonstration of the scientific distinction of a dynasty and a great military power. He did not appear with dazzling decorations at the head of the army in the field; a plain, thoughtful man in his cabinet, out of sight of the troops and out of hearing of the guns (for the most part), manipulated the wires which carried orders as they might have carried an explosive spark to a mine or a torpedo.

In the Austrian campaign of 1866 the King and Moltke did not leave Berlin till the three converging columns, from west, from north, and from east, were nearly united in front of Sadowa, and a strategic success was practically secure. In 1870 the King and Moltke did not enter France till the victories at Wörth and on the heights of Spicheren had

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been won, till the armies of Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles were under the walls of Metz, and the army of the Crown Prince was turning the line of the Moselle by the south. Yet here again, in a strategic point of view, the campaign was already decided; the French were put upon a passive defensive, and the blows followed each other with such relentless continuity and force that no opportunity was given for new combinations or for reorganization. The French Emperor had thought that he was ready and could seize the initiative as the first Napoléon had done. Gen. Leboeuf, his chief of staff, had assured him that all was prepared, "to the last gaiter-button;" but a single month taught him a sad lesson as to the true meaning of military preparation.

French critics have, not unnaturally, pressed the question how all this would have worked if the initial success had been on the other side. Would the German system have appeared so good if put upon the defensive? No doubt the successful initiative is more than half the battle; but the value of a system and the ability of those who direct it are shown in securing this advantage. It is for this that all the great and elaborate preparations are made. Still, we have every reason to believe that Moltke had studied the defensive as well as the offensive campaign, and was prepared for the state of things which would have existed if the French had been first to cross the Rhine. We certainly know that his army would not have found, as the French did, that they had been supplied with maps of the enemy's country only, and knew less of the topography of their own land than their opponents.

There still remains the important question how far instruction, discipline, and system may be perpetuated so that results may be secured by men of average natural abilities, and how far (now as heretofore) it is the great leader that is necessary to combine, to direct, and to command victory by his personal superiority of mind and will. This is the problem the German Empire has to solve; and, even granting that Moltke has introduced a more scientific spirit into military affairs than has ever before been known, it does not follow that his successor will be found able to make equally clear and true combinations of the great forces under his hands. Admitting that war is a collision of forces guided by fixed laws, and keeping up the analogy with the laboratory use of other forces, we must still remember that not every physicist is a Tyndall nor every chemist a Bunsen. The man counts for much in combinations of the strictest science.

In war, however, there is an element of another sort. The conditions of the problem cannot all be foreseen. There is truth in the old habit of regarding it more like a game of chess than the combination of the scientist in the laboratory. The variability of circumstances is so great that, after all has been done that scientific study of the fixed forces can do, there is still room for the master of the art to make combinations which shall disjoint and derange the purposes of his adversary in proportion to his superiority of insight and of nerve.

It looks, at first sight, as if all the subordinates in the Prussian Army had been educated in their duties to a pitch which made them independent of their chief. In the campaigns of both 1866 and 1870, the orders issued to army commanders seem very simple and brief, and nearly everything appeared to be left to their discretion. Indeed, many of the most important directions were framed as suggestions more than commands. The initiative in what proved a great battle was on several occasions taken by a corps or even a division commander, with undoubting confidence that it was sufficiently in accord with the general plan, and that the rest of the army would certainly come to the sound of the cannon. This was sometimes in very striking contrast with the rigidity often shown by officers of a regular army in limiting themselves by the letter of their orders.

On occasions when German generals were intrusted with independent movements, they have seemed to use a strategy as bold and a vigor as great as when acting with the principal column. This was notably the case in 1866, when the column under Gen. von Falckenstein, and afterwards under Gen. Manteuffel, prevented the mobilization of the Hanover troops, captured or defeated them in detail, separated the Bavarian Army from its allies, again defeated first the one and then the other, and completed the campaign with an éclat hardly inferior to that of Königgrätz itself, though upon a smaller scale.

Such facts show the high degree of proficiency in their art which is attained by the general officers of the German Army; but it forces our attention, at the same time, to the other fact that this is the result of systematic and continued education enforced in time of peace. The Austrian and the French wars only disclosed the results of many years of close application to study of their art by officers of all grades in the Prussian service, under rules which allowed none but thoroughly well-instructed men to advance to the command of a division or a corps. In the highest departments of this work Moltke had been himself the instructor, bringing into personal relations to himself and under the influence of his own lectures such men as Voigts-Rhetz, Blumenthal, Stiehle, and others, who distinguished themselves as chiefs of staff to the royal princes or as corps commanders. Such men needed only to be informed of the general plan of campaign — the details they could work out for themselves; and they were so indoctrinated with the importance of accuracy of performance of subordinate parts, as to both method and time, that they could be reckoned upon to be at the right place at the right moment, as confidently as a railway manager would reckon on the carrying out of his schedule by the conductors of the various trains.

We cannot think of Moltke without recognizing the advance in the art of war which he brought about by this introduction of the modern ideas of scientific and business exactness, based upon full knowledge of the conditions under which an army must be used, and of the principles controlling its organization and handling. This part of his work will survive him, and the good results of his system may be seen for generations to come in an abundant supply of officers in the German Army whose education in their art will compare favorably with the preparation which the great universities offer to men who devote themselves to other professions and to the sciences. Yet he was more than an organizer and instructor; he was a great strategist. His insight into the great game of war was that of a master, and his systematic calculations in the details were subordinate to his unrivalled grasp of all the varying conditions of the problem, physical, mental, and moral. It would be rash to predict who his successor may be in this the highest qualification for a great general, or how long a period must elapse before his own country or any other will look upon his like again. It is a unique testimonial to his powers that, when almost ninety years old, the whole world as well as his own countrymen looked to him to conduct a new campaign, if war should occur, without a thought as to his age, or a doubt that his action would be as vigorous as if he were but forty.

THE FIRST JAPANESE PARLIAMENT.

Tokio, March 7, 1891.

It may be said of the first session of the Japanese Parliament, speaking theologically, that it should seek a justification by faith and not by works only. The chief anxiety was not, What will it do? but, In what spirit will Parliament and Government meet in this their first encounter? The important question now is not, What work has Parliament accomplished? but rather, What was its temper and its capacity, its bearing towards the Ministry, the character of their mutual relations, and their respective positions before the nation at the end of the session?

Looking back upon the past four months, the facts that stand out are, first, the conciliatory and statesmanlike attitude of the Government; secondly, the strength of the Lower House. Three most important Government measures—the immediate enforcement of the Commercial Code, the Advocates' Bill, and the Budget—have been either crippled or rejected. but defeat has been accepted with a resignation which was quite unlooked for. The reduction of the Budget has ruined many cherished projects and seriously hampered the Administration; but fairness, temperateness, and readiness to yield their prerogative have characterized the Ministry on almost every occasion.

That the Lower House (for, except in the case of the Advocates' Bill, the Lower House has been chiefly responsible) was strong enough to inflict these blows is the other notable fact. Whatever may be said of the wisdom of some of its acts, it is clear that it has drawn its strength from the nation itself, and this the Government has not failed to recognize. The signal victories of the people's representatives have been those in which public opinion had already been clearly indicated. That the spirit, however, of the Lower House towards the Government was one of challenge, of attack, even of rancor, not of harmonious coöperation and joint endeavor, was from the beginning unmistakable. A note of suspicion and petty fault-finding ran through the speeches made and the bills offered. Perhaps it could scarcely be otherwise after the long years of repression, of exclusion from the secrets of Government, of impotence to realize political aspirations. But it was none the less regrettable. The conduct of the moderate members could not redeem the extravagant and ill-judged action of the majority. But in the end Radicalism undid itself. The session closed with the influence of the Extremists much weakened; and the next session will probably see the Moderates compact and paramount.

But, though the legislative results of the session are of secondary consequence and are of no considerable size, they merit some review. For one thing this first Parliament must be specially credited: it did not attempt to legislate hastily or voluminously. The total number of bills introduced in the Lower House was eighty-one, and not more than fifteen of these

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were finally acted upon; while in the Upper House the numbers were even smaller.

At the very first of the session the postponement of the date of operation (January 1, 1891) of the new Commercial Code—adapted from the German Code—was brought up. The state of public opinion on this subject had been a disputed topic, but postponement for two years was voted in the Commons by 189 to 67, and in the Peers by not so large a majority. It was noticeable that the debate dealt very little with facts, that each one's opinion seemed to be already made up. The issue of the matter is, on the whole, satisfactory, for there is need of some further adaptation of the Code to Japanese mercantile usage. But the question is full of difficulties, and is complicated by the desire of the Government to expedite treaty revision by advertising the completion of these imported codes.

Four other important measures, two of which passed and two did not, concerned characteristic conditions of the country. The Registration Bill (passed) revised the system of *koseki*, or personal registration, an historic feature of Japanese social regulation dating back a thousand years. Every family is allotted a page in the district register. When any member of the family marries, moves, goes on a journey, changes his name, or what not, it all receives a mention in the register. Important questions of inheritance, paternity, legitimation, naturalization, and the like are thus involved in the regulation of the register. Without a parallel in our own social system, it is quite in harmony with Japanese habits; but it has too strong an influence in perpetuating the superiority of the official classes. The Weights and Measures Bill (passed) had for its object (1) the fixing of the present standards with scientific exactness; (2) the adjustment of relations of equivalence between domestic and Western standards. The favor accorded in the bill to the metric system brought forth a quantity of patriotic buncombe from some of the Conservative orators which almost equalled our insanity over British designs upon Columbia's commercial prosperity. A rectification and inspection of weights and measures is sadly needed here. One of the debaters, arguing against the bill on the ground of the widespread hardship it would cause, declared that scarcely a set of the existing weights and measures was up to the proper standard—a startling admission, and calculated, one would think, to expedite the passage of the new law.

The Advocates' Bill (not passed) dealt with the qualifications and privileges of lawyers. The Japanese bar is at present in a transition state, and the hundreds of unpractical, superficial young fellows who yearly graduate from the law schools do not help to improve it. In the old days, the suitor crawled on his knees to the judge, and the feed advocate was unknown. This has passed away; but the dignity and the rights of the bar are far from being recognized as we know them. One great merit of this law would have been its recognition of the advocate as an officer of the court. But think of briefless barristers paying license fees of two or three hundred *yen!* Think of a probationary practice of ten years before admission to the bar of the Supreme Court! It was such provisions as these (wise or not as they may be) that killed the bill.

The Poor-Relief Bill (not passed) was an attempt at partially solving one of the coming problems. The subject of charity and relief in old Japan, though little studied by foreign observers, is one of the most interesting. It was a striking example of the "back-to-back" principle put into practice. As in India, each family, each neighborhood, took care of its own poverty and distress. If a man met with distress, his relatives contributed food, his landlord remitted the rent, his neighbors made up a lottery, the *daimio* abated his taxes, until gradually good times came again. But all this is now beginning to change. Local life fades into national life. One sees in the future the family disintegrating and the individual becoming the unit of society. Modern methods must be adopted. The Germans are proposing agricultural insurance as one form of aid. My own opinion is that nothing will avail much until a greater class-amalgamation comes about and a healthy public opinion arises, to inspire and support voluntary organization for economic and charitable purposes.

The Poor-Relief Bill was the Government's. On the side of the people the remedy offered was a land-tax reduction bill, taking ½ per cent. from the 2½ per cent. tax. This tax averages 25 per cent. or 30 per cent. of the gross income, where the land-valuation is correct. But the tax is no more the cause of the agricultural distress than is the farmer's mortgage in our West the cause of his bankruptcy. The true causes lie deeper, among them being the rise in prices and in the standard of living; and investigations are now being made which will lead to surer conclusions. The Lower House passed this bill with scarcely a dissenting vote, but the Peers, receiving it at the close of the session, postponed its consideration. A bill to revise the land-valuations was also shelved for want of time. This was the only measure in which sectional opposition openly showed itself. For various historical reasons, the valuation is too high in some regions, too low in others; accordingly, the petitions for revision numbered 197, the petitions against revision, 85. The next session will see this issue a more prominent one.

Among interesting minor measures comes the appropriation of 500,000 *yen* for Japan's exhibit at the Chicago Exposition. It happened that the draughtsman of the bill had in the preamble spoken courteously of Japan's relations with the United States as closer than those with any other nation. Some cautious members of the Upper House took exception to this language, fearing that offence might be given to other nations. A spirited debate ensued. Apparently no one desired to contradict the statement or to offer any criticism upon our treatment of Japan, and the only ground of objection was the probable offence to other Powers. The words were finally struck out. Other special appropriations, showing a decided liberality to science and a regard for the reputation of the country, were the grants of 10,000 *yen* for the study of Dr. Koch's remedy, and of an extra 100,000 for hastening the official survey of Japan. In the Peers a proposition was made to change the mode of seating the members. The present system ranges the members according to the rank of each one, the rich commoners thus coming last; the proposal was to seat all by lot, the Princes of the Imperial Family excepted. Those who have said in America that Japan is democratic in its spirit will take notice that this change was rejected by a good majority, and that commoners themselves (who form nearly one-half of the body) spoke against it.

The Peace Preservation Regulations of December 25, 1887, will be well remembered in America. These came into prominence again in a peculiar way. They have always been obnoxious, especially to a certain class of politicians strongly represented in the Lower House, and it was well understood that their repeal would be among the first acts of the House. On December 22 the repealing bill was rushed through, the second and third readings being dispensed with, and the measure then went to the Peers for concurrence. But before the latter had time to act, the very *soshi* (political hoodlums) against whom the regulations were specially directed had begun again their deeds of violence. They seem to have been maintained in large numbers by various members, and were employed by them to intimidate political opponents in the House. But, though during the session some six or eight members in all were assaulted, the first person to become a victim to the *soshi* was, by a sort of poetic justice, one of the very members who had been loudest in demanding the repeal of the Regulations, Mr. Suzuki Shoji. The necessity for their continued existence and the premature character of the House's action could not have been better shown. The Government has been strangely lax in punishing these offenders, and the House itself, embracing influential employers of *sashi*, is powerless. Just as our Congressmen and Senators cannot shake off, if they would, the crowd of placemen that have lifted them into office, and must wink at practices against which they dare not protest, so here campaign necessities have surrounded the members with companies of idle and brainless youths. These have followed them from the country, and are now picketed upon them in Tokio, and the intrigues and bargains of Parliamentary life have put it more or less out of the power of the legislators to free themselves.

The Budget, which occupied two months in the Lower House, calls for little mention here. A reduction of 8,000,000 in a total expenditure of 94,000,000, was demanded, and the Government finally yielded nearly six and one-half millions. It is noticeable that the House left the military and naval estimates almost intact. Higher education suffered seriously, for the Female Normal School, the Music School, and several of the colleges have had a portion of their support withdrawn. But Japan has her problems, not dissimilar to our own, as to the length and content of the college course, and the action of Parliament has raised a discussion of the subject which cannot but do good.

People abroad probably did not realize how serious a situation the Budget caused, or how nearly the House came to precipitating a dissolution. The House approved the impossible reductions of the Budget Committee by a vote of 153 to 101; and as the majority held their own firmly on all the Budget votes, the Ministry passed many sleepless nights of indecision over the question of yielding or ordering a dissolution. The extreme Radicals were anxious to force a dissolution and throw themselves upon the country, but the more sensible members of their party were disgusted with the demagogic manœuvres of the Extremists, and seceded in large numbers to the ranks of the Moderates. In the end, Government and House met half way, and a crisis was averted. The Peers had but five days in which to dispose of the Budget; but they showed notable good sense and self-control by refraining from debate and by adopting the compromise Budget sent up from the Lower House. The House of Peers has come out of this first session with an excellent record for ability, sobriety, and legislative skill. J. H. W.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS.—IV.

PARIS, April 15, 1891.

IT is not impossible to find the philosopher in Talleyrand, as well as the writer, though he

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seems to disclaim all literary merit as well as all philosophical pretensions. I read, for instance, at the beginning of his second volume, these lines: "Home life alone can replace all chimæras. But at the epoch of which I speak [1809] this home life, sweet and calm, existed but for very few people. Napoleon did not allow any one to become attached to it; he believed that people belonged to him only when they were homeless." It would be difficult to describe better a state of things, erected by despotism, which had inspired all Frenchmen with a sort of curious indifference and fatalism. Everybody felt that he was led by an all-powerful hand to an unknown destiny. The relations of Talleyrand to Napoleon had become difficult; on various occasions the Emperor publicly made "violent scenes." Talleyrand bore them with his unalterable calm. I have been told (this story is not in the Memoirs) that one day, after one of these scenes, he walked away, quietly saying, "What a pity that so great a man should have received such a bad education!"

In the month of January, 1810, Napoleon summoned an extraordinary council, composed of all the high officers of the State, and explained his intention to divorce the Empress Josephine, and consulted them as to the choice of a new Empress. There were three families from which he might take a wife—the Austrian, the Russian, the Saxon. Talleyrand, when his turn came, explained that an Austrian alliance would be the best for France. "My secret motive," he says, "was that the conservation of Austria depended upon the step which the Emperor was going to take; but it was not a suitable occasion to say so." Talleyrand was all his life a sincere partisan of Austria. He considered this empire as the corner-stone of the European equilibrium; he instinctively hated and distrusted Russia. In the circumstances, he could speak according to his most intimate convictions. The reason he gave was this: the appearance of an Austrian Princess in France would absolve France from the crime of the revolutionary faction and bring about a European reconciliation. He pronounced the word reconciliation several times, thus showing that he thought Napoleon had made wars enough and that peace was now a necessity. A few days afterwards, the Emperor asked for the hand of the Archduchess Marie Louise, and his offer was accepted. Berthier, Prince of Wagram, was sent to Vienna to marry the Archduchess by proxy, and the Emperor chose, as the lady-in-waiting of the new Empress, the widow of Marshal Lannes, the Duchess of Montebello. At the very moment when the guns of the Invalides announced the marriage to Paris, other guns were blowing up the fortifications of Vienna, according to the conditions of the last treaty imposed by Napoleon. It was by this means that Napoleon wished to associate his new union with the glory of his army. He treated his father-in-law with the greatest severity; peace was for him only a respite.

Talleyrand was well aware that Napoleon was fatiguing Europe. The Emperor had one day been so imprudent as to say that before he died his dynasty would be the oldest in Europe. He distributed to his brothers and to the husbands of his sisters the thrones which conquest or perfidy placed in his hands. Naples, Westphalia, Holland, Spain, Lucca, Sweden had become dependencies of his Empire. Talleyrand analyzes with much truth the feelings of these new sovereigns "par la grâce de Napoléon." He prophesied that they would soon escape from his tyranny as rapidly as Philip V. of Spain had escaped from the tyranny of Louis XIV. Each of these new creations was really a source of weakness for Napoleon. "Napoleon took pleasure in disquieting, humiliating, tormenting those whom he had elevated; and they, placed in a perpetual state of uneasiness and irritation, worked underhandedly against the power which had created them, and which they already considered as their principal enemy."

Talleyrand even finds fault with the special style of luxury of the new courts. "The luxury of these Napoleonic courts, we may here remark, was absurd. It was neither German nor French; it was a mixture, a sort of erudite, eclectic luxury. It had something of the Austrian gravity, something Asiatic, taken from St. Petersburg. It paraded mantles taken from the Rome of the Cæsars; but it showed very little of the old French Court, where luxury so happily concealed magnificence beneath the charms of all the arts and of taste." Talleyrand thinks that the Bonaparte family, issued from a half-barbarous island, would have seemed greater if it had adopted simple republican ways. Surely, the people remember the Emperor, not as David paints him in his famous pictures of the coronation or of the marriage, robed like a Cæsar, but as the soldier with the gray redingote, the "petit chapeau."

"I wish," says Talleyrand, "to avoid what might seem libellous, and I need not mention names in order to prove that, by their private manners, these new dynasties diminished the moral power of the Emperor Napoleon. The manners of the people, in troubled times, are often bad, but even when the populace has all sorts of vices, its morality is severe. 'Men,' says Montesquieu, 'corrupt in detail, are very honest *en gros*.' And the people who are honest in this way judge kings and queens. When their judgment is a condemnation, it is difficult for a Power, especially of recent date, not to be shaken by it."

Talleyrand is particularly severe on the attempt of Napoleon to place his brother on the throne of Spain; he sees in the Spanish war almost a sign of madness. He condemns also Napoleon's conduct towards the Pope; he enters into very minute details on the great question of the relations of France with the Papacy; but these details are not very new, and have now lost much of their interest. You will find the Bishop of Autun and the theologian in this long chapter. Talleyrand, though he was secularized, could never quite forget his clerical origin.

We come now to the eventful years which preceded the fall of the Empire and the Restoration of the Bourbons. Some passages show clearly that this part of the Memoirs was written during the Restoration and before the death of Louis XVIII. "Let him," says Talleyrand, "remember a moment all that was necessary after 1803 to pave the way for his return." The mistakes and illusions of Napoleon were one of those necessities. Talleyrand thinks that Napoleon could have remained on the throne and founded a dynasty under these conditions: "It was necessary (1) to effect the unity of Italy by transferring to her the House of Bavaria; (2) to divide Germany between the House of Austria, which would have extended itself to the mouths of the Danube, and the House of Brandenburg, which would have been enlarged; (3) to resuscitate Poland and give her to the House of Saxony." You will recognize here the great foresight of Talleyrand as well as his fear of the Russian domination in Europe. He distinctly foresaw the necessity of Italian unity, of the aggrandizement of Prussia, of a barrier against Russian ambition. "Napoleon might have done these things, and he did not do them. If he had, gratitude would have built statues to him, and his death would have been mourned by all nations." Talleyrand says that he felt a bitter grief on seeing the Emperor ruin himself. "I loved Napoleon; I was attached to his person, notwithstanding his defects. At the beginning I felt drawn towards him by the irresistible attraction of genius." He always told him the truth, but the truth had become unpalatable to the despot. He had become an object of the fears of Napoleon, and he was shadowed by Savary's police. Nevertheless, Napoleon offered him the Foreign Office in December, 1813, but Talleyrand refused it. Napoleon once said afterwards to M. de la Besnardière, when he found himself entangled in great difficulties: "Ah! if Talleyrand were here, he would draw me out of this." "He was mistaken, for I could only have done so, which I probably should have done, by accepting the conditions of the enemy; and on the same day, if he had had the slightest military success, he would have disavowed my signature." This was said during the negotiations of Châtillon, when the Allies were already in France.

When Wellington crossed the Bidassoa and entered the south of France, the Duc d'Angoulême made his appearance at Saint Jean de Luz. He excited some curiosity and was well received, but the English general did not let him ignore the fact that his Government was treating with Napoleon, and that he could do nothing for the Bourbons. The Memoirs of Talleyrand are in perfect accordance with those of Vitrolles, who boldly joined the headquarters of the Allies, and made himself the advocate of the Restoration of the Bourbons. Vitrolles had a mission from Talleyrand, and his instructions were these: "On the probable supposition of the definitive defeat of Napoleon, what would the Allies do? Would they treat with the Emperor, or would they allow France to choose freely another form of government?" Talleyrand, though he could not expect much sympathy from the Bourbons, had made up his mind that their return was the best solution for France, that it would insure peace, and that it would secure for France the best frontiers she could hope to preserve.

M. de Vitrolles fulfilled his mission with much zeal and intelligence; he saw Stadion, Metternich, the Emperor Alexander. When Alexander entered Paris, he went directly to the Hôtel St. Florentin, which was the residence of Talleyrand. In the first conversation which took place between them, the question of the government of France was immediately discussed. "How can I know," said the Emperor, "that France desires the House of Bourbon?" "By a resolution, Sire, which I will ask the Senate to pass, and of which your Majesty will immediately see the effect." "Are you sure?" "Quite sure." On the 2d of August the Senate was convoked, and in the evening, at seven o'clock, Talleyrand brought to the Emperor Alexander the memorable and unanimous address which pronounced the downfall of Napoleon and the reëstablishment of the Bourbons with constitutional guarantees. "The Emperor Alexander was stupefied, I must confess, when he saw amidst the names of the Senators who asked for the House of Bourbon the names of several men who had voted for the death of Louis XVI."

Talleyrand had invoked, in his conversation with Alexander, as he did afterwards with success at the Congress of Vienna, the principle which he baptized with the name of *légitimité*, and which has ever since preserved that name; he said to him:

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"Neither you, Sire, nor the allied Powers; neither myself, to whom you attribute some influence—none of us, in short, can give a King to France. France is conquered, and by your arms; nevertheless you have not that power. An *imposed* King would be the result of an intrigue or of force; they are both insufficient. To do something durable and which can be accepted without a protest, you must act from a principle, . . . and there is but one in this case: Louis XVIII. is a principle, he is the legitimate King of France."

A provisory government had been named. Talleyrand was the President of it; the other members were the Duc de Dalberg, Count Jaucourt, the Abbé de Montesquiou, and Gen. Beurnonville.

Correspondence.

MR. HAMERTON ON "ETCHING."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of your contributors blames me for having said that photogravure was etching. I have said it of a certain kind of *héliogravure*. "*Photogravure*," when the word is employed in its special sense for the Goupil process, is not etching at all; *héliogravure*, when tones are imitated without lines, is in fact a kind of aquatint, and is correctly called so by Messrs. Boussod & Valadon in their announcements. *Héliogravure* by Dujardin from pen-drawings is technically a kind of etching, but of course it would be misleading to call it "etching," without explanation, when addressing the general public. When Amand Durand used to copy the etchings of Rembrandt, Claude, Vandyke, and others, he employed photography only for the transfer of the drawing to a sensitized etching-ground. His process of biting was exactly that of an ordinary etcher. The difficulty was enhanced by the delicacy of the first sensitized ground, which he removed as soon as rebitings became possible, when he covered the plate again with an ordinary etching-ground and proceeded just as etchers do. The result is therefore *etching by division of labor*, the work being shared by an artist, a photographer, and a chemical operator for the biting. I am now told in various periodicals that to be an "etching" a plate must be drawn on the copper by the artist, and be bitten by himself. I have no objection, but can only remark that if this is to be so, the learned in art matters will have to give up calling Turner's plates "etchings," as, although the designs were drawn on the copper by him, it seems very probable, if not certain, that the biting was done for him by a professional engraver; and if not etchings, what are they?

The origin of my expression of opinion on the matter which has excited so much protest is briefly this: Mr. Pennell, in his book on 'Pen-Drawing,' tried to depreciate etching in comparison with his own art, referring to works as pen-drawings which had been so no doubt in their origin, *but which had been since transmuted into etchings by being bitten into copperplates, thereby borrowing the depth and power of the etched line*, which the real pen-line with ink on white paper cannot, in its flatness, possess. What I said was in substance this: "A fair comparison of pen-work with etching would be between pen-lines and bitten lines, not between bitten lines and bitten lines." A little anecdote about Sir John Gilbert may make this clearer still. Sir John had done a pen-drawing for the *Portfolio*, when I sent it to Amand Durand, who reproduced it as an etching. This did not please Sir John, who wanted the quality and the values of his ink lines. Amand Durand, on learning this, wrote to me and said: "I thought you wanted the pen-drawing *to be turned into an etching;* that is why I bit it in that manner, *but in another reproduction I will imitate the* quality of the ink lines," and he did so. In my opinion, all processes for the reproduction of pen-drawings in which the lines come as an intaglio etching or engraving, are inferior in fidelity to mechanical autotype.

One word more as to the matter of honesty. Those who blame me for imprudently revealing what is simply the truth about linear *héliogravure*, may be invited to discover a single instance (in the *Portfolio* or elsewhere) in which I have authorized by my example the practice of passing off reproductions as original work. I may add that a professional engraver of the greatest eminence once offered to bite my own plates for me to economize my time; but I thought that an artist ought to do all the work himself, even though, like some of the old masters, he was sometimes unskilful or unlucky in the chemical operations. However, a division of labor (and all this is nothing more) might be tolerated if it were always duly acknowledged.—Sincerely yours,

P. G. Hamerton.

Autun, April 15, 1891.

THE MODEL BALLOT LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 16th of April, praising the new ballot law of New Hampshire, you call attention to what you style "a new feature" in such laws, requiring ballot-boxes with "a bell and mechanical device, for receiving, registering, and cancelling every ballot deposited therein." You say of this feature: "There is no obvious reason for the adoption of boxes of this kind, except that the owners of some patented device succeeded in inducing the Legislature to make use of it."

Will you kindly give me a chance to do an act of justice to the New Hampshire Legislature, and at the same time to explain, what is not generally understood, that the registering and cancelling ballot-box is an important part of the Massachusetts ballot system? These boxes were adopted and used in Massachusetts in 1884 (Acts 1884, chap. 299), and then and ever since have given the utmost satisfaction. The Australian-ballot law of Massachusetts was drawn with reference to these ballot-boxes. Without the existing use of these boxes, the Massachusetts ballot law would be defective. In England the ballots are numbered, and while this serves many other purposes, it also serves, in case of an election contest, to disclose how a voter has voted, and just so far impairs the secrecy of the system. The ballot-box used in this State cancels the back of the ballot as it is received, in red ink, with waving lines, and with the number of the ward and precinct, but in a uniform way so that the voter cannot be identified by his ballot. If by any chance two ballots are cast at once, only one of these is cancelled, and therefore the "stuffed" ballot is immediately detected. At the same time that the ballot is received a bell rings and one higher number is indicated on the register. At the close of the voting the number on the register is written down and certified to, the box is emptied of its ballots, relocked, and taken back to the City Hall, and this has to be done before the counting of the ballots begins. If during the counting, or at any time afterwards, any one in charge of the ballots tries to substitute any ballots for those actually cast, the fraud is easily detected, as the new ballots will not be cancelled. Without describing the details in full, I have said enough to show that we thus insure that the ballots counted are the ballots cast, which is a very important, but, unfortunately, a rare thing in this country. It is this provision which makes our recounts in Massachusetts of some real value.

The Massachusetts bill has been copied by some States without the knowledge, apparently, that we had a ballot-box law, and without making any provisions for otherwise accomplishing what our ballot-boxes do. Mr. George F. Page of Concord, N. H., Chairman of the Special Committee on Ballot Law of the New Hampshire Legislature, came to Massachusetts, and made a thorough study of our system. He consulted with the officers of the Ballot-Act League, with the Secretary of the Commonwealth, and some of our leading city clerks. He was persuaded that the registering and cancelling ballot-box was a very valuable feature of our Massachusetts law, and the New Hampshire bill, as reported and now enacted, by containing that and certain other features of the Massachusetts system not specified in the Massachusetts act of 1888, and by containing also a few changes recommended by friends of the Australian system of Massachusetts, seems to many of us to be the best model for States wishing to have all the election-law advantages we possess in Massachusetts.—Yours truly,

Richard H. Dana.

THE LANGUAGE TEST FOR IMMIGRANTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the *Nation* for April 16, entitled the "The Proper Sieve for Immigrants," proposing a language test for those who would become inhabitants of this country, calls to mind a series of very interesting investigations which were made by the writer, a few years ago, in an attempt to find out precisely from what nationalities the dangers resulting from alien ideas and training were most to be feared. The inquiry was made in the State of Minnesota, which by reason of the large percentage, as well as the diversity, of its foreign population, presented an unusually good opportunity for this kind of research. The result showed that in all the public institutions of the State, including both penal and charitable institutions, the percentage of inmates was very much smaller, in the case of every foreign nationality, according to their ratio of the whole population, than for the natives themselves—except the only two English-speaking peoples that come to our shores. These, *i. e.*, the Irish and the English (including Scotch), alone exceeded their quota; the former furnishing more than three times their proper quota according to the population. And yet these would have been those who could most easily have passed the test which your editorial proposes. It can be shown, not only from these, but from many other sources, that the dangers to which our national and social life is exposed, come to us much more from English-speaking than from any other peoples.

Sincerely yours, A. A. Berle.

Cambridge, Mass., April 22, 1891.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your plan of making a knowledge of English a requisite for admission to our country would be an injustice to a large class of desirable immigrants. Nearly all Swedes and Norwegians cannot speak it when they first

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come, but learn it in a surprisingly short time. The same is true to a less extent with the Germans. These people, at least in the West, quickly assimilate American ideas, and become our steadiest and most useful citizens.

E. C. SPENCER.

ST. PAUL, April 21, 1891.

THE THEATRE AT MEGALOPOLIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The excavations at Megalopolis, begun by the British School at Athens in 1890, have aroused great interest among scholars. These excavations disclose a well-preserved Greek theatre. Mr. Ernest Gardner announced with confidence in the London *Athenæum* for August 2, 1890, that he and his colleagues had here discovered a Greek stage dating from the fourth century B. C. An official report on this theatre, accompanied by two plans, and signed by Mr. Gardner, Mr. W. Loring, and others, is made in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for October, 1890. According to this report, the Greek stage was 5' 10" high and 18' 2" broad. It was mounted by means of a flight of six steps, three of which remain, that ran along its entire front and sides. In the wall at the rear of the stage are three doorways which led into a stoa that lay behind. This Greek stage, according to the ground-plan given, was about 105 feet long. About 20 feet in front of it is a low wall which supported the columned front of a *Roman* stage. Five of the columns, or parts of them, are still in position.

In the *Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift* for April 4, 1890, Dr. Dörpfeld, the distinguished First Secretary of the German Archæological Institute at Athens, denies the soundness of these conclusions of the English archæologists. Half-a-dozen years ago Dr. Dörpfeld advanced, mainly on the ground of architectural considerations, the view that no stage existed in the Greek theatre, but that in the time of the great dramatists the actors and the chorus stood on the common level of the orchestra. What Vitruvius mistook for the front wall of a stage ten or twelve feet high (technically called the *proscenium*) was not that at all, but the wall on which the scenery was suspended. The actors stood in front of this, not on it. In the early times it was a temporary structure of wood; later, in Roman times, it was built of stone. This view, I may add, is strongly supported by the literary evidence furnished by the extant dramas, especially by the comedies of Aristophanes. The report in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* says that the discoveries at Megalopolis are fatal to Dr. Dörpfeld's view. "For our stage is proved to be 'Greek' at once by its structure, by its position, and by the existence of a separate Roman stage." The *Classical Review* for March, 1891, in an equally confident tone, states that the excavations at Megalopolis have conclusively proved the existence of a Greek stage, in addition to the Roman stage, "and therefore Dr. Dörpfeld's theory will not hold."

Dr. Dörpfeld, whose modesty and fairness are surpassed only by his skill in dealing with difficult architectural problems, believes and acts on the belief that anybody who digs a hole in Greek lands has the first right to tell what he finds in it. He has waited, therefore, until the present time before announcing his own view of what actually has been unearthed at Megalopolis. Briefly stated, this is as follows: First, what the English archæologists suppose to have been a Greek "stage" was the main theatre-building, entered by a flight of *three* steps. Its front wall was thirty metres distant from the middle seat of the front row of seats in the auditorium. This is about the position of the corresponding wall (*scænæ frons*) in the great theatre at Athens. The three doors in the *rear* wall of the theatre-building led to the stoa behind. Their sills lie 5' 10" above the orchestra, because the level of the stoa was to just that extent higher than the level of the orchestra. Secondly, what the English archæologists suppose to have been a Roman stage (but with some misgivings, since "it does not conform in every respect to the Roman *type*") was the *proscenium*. It is precisely of the type of those found at Athens, Piræus, Oropus, Thespiæ, Epidaurus, and Assos. Five of the columns, or parts of them, are yet *in situ*. This stone structure dates from the Roman times. It took the place, as in other theatres, of an earlier temporary wooden structure. The actors stood in front of this on the floor of the orchestra. Dr. Dörpfeld regards the ruins of the theatre at Megalopolis as the best evidence yet produced by excavation of the truth of his theory.

Three considerations may be added. First, the dimensions of the ruins at Megalopolis which the English archæologists suppose to have been a stage, but Dr. Dörpfeld the theatre-building, agree closely in respect to length and breadth with what it is agreed was the main theatre-building at Epidaurus. Secondly, the English archæologists have made no provision whatever in their disposition of the ruins for such a theatre-building, where the machinery would be stored and the actors would dress and change their masks—a grave omission. Finally, in explanation of the three (not six) steps, traces of which have not been found elsewhere, we may reasonably suppose that the top of this flight of steps marked *the level of the floor of the main building*. Three additional steps resting on this floor at the rear of the building would be necessary for attaining through the doors in the rear wall the level of the stoa which lay behind. The steps, then, are accounted for by the peculiar situation of the main building between two levels.

JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1891.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. will publish directly a 'Short History of Greek Philosophy,' for students and general readers, by Dr. John Marshall, rector of the Royal High School, Edinburgh, and 'Khaled, an Eastern Tale,' by F. Marion Crawford.

D. Appleton & Co. announce for early publication 'We All,' by Octave Thanet, with many illustrations, a new book in the series of "Good Books for Young Readers"; 'Tourmalin's Time Cheques,' a new story by F. Anstey; 'The Maid of Honor,' by the Hon. Lewis Wingfield; 'From Sunshine to Shadow,' a novel by the Marquis of Lorne; 'Consequences,' a novel, by Egerton Castle; Baldwin's 'Applied Psychology and Art of Teaching'; Herbart's 'Psychology'; 'A Descriptive Guide-Book to Canada,' including full accounts of the opportunities for sportsmen and tourists, by Charles G. D. Roberts; and 'North America,' volume xv. of Reclus's "The Earth and Its Inhabitants."

W. H. Lowdermilk & Co., Washington, have in press 'Scatalogic Rites of all Nations,' by Capt. John G. Bourke, Third Cavalry, U. S. A.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a two-volume novel, 'Monk and Knight,' by the Rev. F. W. Gunsaulus.

The Dunlap Society expects to issue this year a supplementary volume of Mr. William Winter's 'Brief Chronicles,' which will include an essay on the late Lawrence Barrett. Mr. William L. Keese is also preparing for the Society a memoir of the 'Private Life of William E. Burton,' to contain many interesting letters. Both of these, and a third volume not yet announced, will be illustrated. Mr. William Carey has succeeded Mr. Brander Matthews as Secretary, and his address is No. 33 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

Aristotle's newly discovered work on the 'Constitution of Athens' has been translated into German by Georg Kaibel and Adolf Kiessling, professors in the University of Strassburg, and is to be published by K. J. Trübner of that city.

A most useful and compendious work, the 'History of England from the Conclusion of the Great War in 1815 [to 1861],' by Spencer Walpole, which originally appeared in three volumes in 1879, has now been reproduced in six, well-printed and neatly bound, and offered at a moderate price (Longmans). The author has revised it, and to some extent rearranged or recast it, so that this popular edition is also the most desirable for the student. There is an index of more than eighty pages.

We made mention the other day of a new edition of Darwin's 'Coral Reefs.' D. Appleton & Co. have just published a new (third and authorized) edition of the same naturalist's 'Geological Observations on the Volcanic Islands and Parts of South America Visited during the Voyage of H. M. S. *Beagle*.' The original merit of this work has been but little affected by time, while the general reader is to-day undoubtedly better fitted to understand and enjoy the 'Observations' than when they were first given to the public. No one engaged in teaching physical geography should be without a knowledge of this characteristic product of Darwin's mind.

The Government is doing a good thing in issuing works that have their particular value for specialists and at the same time are adapted to the needs of students in general. The Geology of Cape Ann, by Prof. N. S. Shaler, is one of several that make excellent handbooks for local studies. The region traversed is popular as a seaside resort, and its study offers double attraction to individuals or classes in opportunities for combining pleasure and research during a vacation. The book, with its numerous beautiful illustrations of the scenic and other geological features, and its maps and charts, forms a splendid guide as well as text-book. The Professor gives liberal credit to his assistant, Mr. Ralph S. Tarr. A novel feature is introduced in the structure of the diagrammatic tabulations of dips of dikes, strikes of dikes, joint planes, and of the distribution of joint planes. The paper is issued as an extra from pages 529 to 611 of the ninth Annual Report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey.

Landor's 'Citation and Examination of William Shakspeare,' as it was one of the most daring, was also in some respects one of the happiest, of his conversations in imagination, though we confess to finding it prolix even for a volume of leisure. It must be acknowledged, also, that one cannot believe for a moment in his youthful Shakspere; but the other characters are sufficiently drawn, and serve as mouthpiece and target for the rambling Elizabethan talk which is often at Landor's best. The reissue of the work by Dodd, Mead & Co., with a few unnecessary words of introduction by Hamilton Wright Mabie, is very prettily illustrated and bound, and makes a handy edition of this curious classic. It should perhaps be

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added that the conversation between Spenser and Essex, after the former's misfortune in Ireland, which is represented as coming from the same papers as the 'Citation,' concludes the volume.

M. Henri Bouchot has followed his little treatise on bookplates by another on 'Les Livres Modernes qu'il convient d'acquérir' (Paris: Rouveyre; New York: F. W. Christern). It is a careful consideration by an expert of the best editions, and more particularly of the most elaborately illustrated *éditions de luxe*, which have been published in Paris within the past twenty and thirty years. M. Bouchot being an expert in the exact sense of the word—he is officially connected with the National Library—and having a fine taste of his own, is not easy to please, and some of the most sumptuous productions of Parisian publishers of late years fail to find favor in his eyes. But he is not arbitrary, and he gives excellent reasons for his likes and dislikes. His booklet, therefore, is one which can be read to advantage by both booklovers and bookmakers in this country. It is amusing to witness his horror of the extra-illustrated book, grangerized by the insertion of heterogeneous plates of all sizes.

D. C. Heath & Co. have added to their Modern Language Series the charming Corsican tale of Prosper Mérimée's, 'Colomba,' annotated by Prof. J. A. Fontaine of the University of Mississippi.

Mrs. C. Goodyear's 'Message to China Decorators' (Society of Decorative Work, New York), and M. F. Hayes's 'Common Sense in China Painting' (Westfield, N. Y.), show outwardly the contrast of their respective contents. Mrs. Goodyear dwells on the design, on the art, while her sister author describes with great minuteness the technical process, leaving the fewest possible questions to be asked by the beginner without a teacher, but having no advice to give about training and proficiency in draughtsmanship. On this point Mrs. Goodyear's doctrine is sound, as such technical instruction as she vouchsafes is profitable to observe; but her message might better have been conveyed in the simple book form of 'China Painting,' instead of being printed as an awkward roll, however elegantly got up. Both manuals may well be procured by the tyro.

The Society for Political Education has published, through G. P. Putnam's Sons, a very useful 'Reader's Guide in Economic, Social, and Political Science.' It contains a classified bibliography, American, English, French, and German, with proposed courses of reading, and with the courses in this department at the principal colleges. Brief descriptive rather than critical notes are added under some of the titles. It contains 170 pages.

The pamphlet Bulletin issued at Albany from the State Library, entitled "Legislation No. 1, February, 1891," is the beginning of an enterprise of singular political utility. What is attempted by Librarians Dewey and Shaw is a "comparative summary and index of State legislation in 1890"—and regularly hereafter if their labor meets with approval. Under twenty-four heads one is directed to the statutes of seventeen States and one Territory regarding public morals, religion, finance, military, insurance, agriculture, public health and safety, etc.; while an index gives the key to particulars, such as Australian ballot, women, ten-hour day, sleeping-cars, minors, Paris green, overhead wires, fire companies, bounties, etc., etc. It is superfluous to expatiate on the advantage of such a conspectus of the annual legislative movement, so to speak. It is a distinct contribution to sane law-making, and to the unification of the several States by promoting the adoption of improved ideas and principles. The compilers deserve the gratitude of all, and their Bulletin should be supplied freely to the members of every Legislature in the country. Students of comparative legislation cannot afford to dispense with it.

A fine publication is begun, under the auspices of the Hemenway Southwestern Archæological Expedition and the editorship of Dr. J. Walter Fewkes, viz., a *Journal of American Ethnology and Archæology* (vol. i., Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The editor contributes two papers, both illustrated, on "A Few Summer Ceremonials at Zuñi Pueblo," and "Reconnoissance of Ruins in or near the Zuñi Reservation," while Mr. Benjamin Ives Gilman discourses on "Zuñi Melodies," of which he furnishes nine examples in musical notation. The novelty here consists in the fact that Mr. Gilman took down these melodies from Dr. Fewkes's phonographic cylinders. The defects of this invaluable record of the human voice are pointed out by Mr. Gilman, who can still say: "A collection of phonographic cylinders like that obtained by Dr. Fewkes forms a permanent museum of primitive music of which the specimens are comparable, in fidelity of reproduction and convenience for study, to casts or photographs of sculpture or painting." And Dr. Fewkes himself says: "I was able, for the first time, I believe, to illustrate lantern views of a sacred dance with an audible reproduction by the phonograph of the song which was sung when the ceremony was taking place." The whole volume is replete with interest.

The April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with Mr. E. G. Ravenstein's paper on the recent expedition of the British East African Company to Uganda. It accomplished little from a political or geographical point of view, but, on the side of natural history, Mr. Bowdler Sharpe of the British Museum, referring to the collection of birds made by it, says that an examination of them shows "that we must entirely revise all our ideas as to the zoo-geographical regions of Africa." In the discussion of the paper by the Society, Sir T. F. Buxton commented very severely on the treatment of the natives by Count Teleki and Dr. Carl Peters. Of the latter he says: "Of course, it is hard to fathom anybody's motives, but inasmuch as Dr. Peters travelled deliberately through a territory at the time acknowledged to be within the British sphere, and apparently did all he could to excite hostility against any other white traveller, it opens the question whether such an inevitable result was accidental." Next follows an account of a Russian expedition for the exploration of the Tian Shan oases of Central Asia. It claims to have discovered a mountain group, approximating 20,000 feet in height, hitherto unvisited and even unseen by any modern traveller.

The most valuable feature of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April is a map of Africa so colored as to show the comparative values to the civilized world of African lands, by the editor, Mr. A. Silva White. Three sets of colors are used: four gradations of blue to designate areas of highest resistance against European influence; five of reddish-brown to show the areas of highest value; and two of yellow to show the intermediate or transitional areas. The main factors for determining these values were climate, natural communications, resources, foreign trade and political conditions. The other articles are by the Rev. James Stewart on Southern Africa, in which he warmly advocates confederation; and an account of recent explorations in British East Africa. In the geographical notes attention is called to the fact that in Kamtchatka there are now twenty-one active volcanoes, while in 1850 only twelve were known to exist.

Lord Randolph Churchill is about to visit Mashonaland for the purpose of seeing for himself whether it is fitted for British emigration on a large scale. His letters are to be published in the London *Daily Graphic*, with illustrations by Capt. Giles, R.A., the commander of the expedition.

The report of Col. Paiva de Andrada to the Portuguese Ministry in regard to his arrest by an officer of the British South Africa Company has been translated and published under the title 'Manica' (London: G. Philip & Son), accompanied by a map of the region in dispute. This is a small plateau, about thirty miles square, situated one hundred and fifty miles south of the Zambesi, and about the same distance from the Indian Ocean. Its value consists in the gold reefs which have been discovered within the past two years. One district, the report says, "has been declared by all prospectors to be unrivalled in the abundance and quality of its auriferous deposits; neither California, nor Australia, nor any other quarter of the world presenting anything like it." The mining rights are claimed by the Mozambique Company in virtue of a concession by the Portuguese Government. As a representative of this company, Col. de Andrada was endeavoring to obtain a confirmation from the King of Manica of the original verbal treaty by which the sovereignty of Portugal was acknowledged some twenty years before, when he was arrested and carried to Cape Town. This action was taken on the ground that the King, Umtasa, had concluded a treaty with the British Company in September, 1890, and had desired protection from the Portuguese. The report does not deny this, but claims that the King had no right to make such a treaty, being a Portuguese subject; that he was intoxicated when he made it, and that no armed force was used or was present to be used. In essential particulars Col. de Andrada's account of the transactions does not differ from that of the *Times* correspondent. It should be added that in the provisional agreement of August 20, 1890, between Great Britain and Portugal, which was rejected by the Cortes, this plateau was distinctly given to the latter country.

We deeply regret to record the death on Friday last of Mr. F. W. Christern, one of the oldest foreign booksellers in this city, and one of the most genial and most respected. For a few years he resided in Philadelphia, but for more than thirty his bookstore, with several removals, has been a familiar resort for all New Yorkers who take an interest in Continental literature. Mr. Christern's obligingness was inexhaustible, and the *Nation* has been indebted to him for unfailing good will and many favors.

—With reference to *esprit d'escalier*, "H. H. F." writes to us:

"It may not greatly help your correspondent, but I can inform him where I met the phrase in question over forty years ago. It is in 'The Tour of a German Prince,' that pleasant, gossipy, attractive book by a man of highly unsavory posthumous reputation. I think, for I have not seen the book since that distant first reading, that the writer, Prince Fückler-Muskau, either mentions the author of this phrase or claims the authorship for himself. At any rate, I remember merely that the phrase is there, and that its definition is almost exactly that which you cite from the 'Konversations-Lexicon.'"

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—The May *Harper's* offers an unusual number of attractive articles by which the ordinary reader may be agreeably instructed, but the most remarkable is Archdeacon Farrar's paper upon the Salvation Army. He undertakes, he says, neither to defend nor to condemn, but to state what this remarkable revival has counted for in the life of the unreligious masses in England; but he is plainly convinced that the facts themselves are large enough to make either defence or condemnation futile. The important and striking position taken by the Archdeacon is the frank admission that the Christianity of the English Church is a thing unintelligible to the poorer classes, its ritual and services powerless to attract them, and the whole institution utterly removed from their needs and lives. It would appear from his statement of the case that Christianity, as it is embodied in the English Church, is as foreign to these people as Buddhism. It simply has no contact with them. Opposite to this failure on the one side he sets the work of regeneration actually accomplished by Gen. Booth and his associates and disciples in rousing a religious emotion and active faith in these same masses. Vulgar in expression and military in its organization, though it be, the Salvation Army has, he quotes Bishop Lightfoot as saying, "recalled to us a lost secret of Christianity," and he intimates at least that the music, the banners, and the shouting are merely another kind of ritual, pleasing to persons whose æsthetic taste is not developed to the point of appreciating a more refined, venerable, and ancient processionalism. In a word, the results are so great that the methods are lost in them, and the exhibition is one well calculated to set English churchmen to thinking about the old methods. Of the remaining papers we can direct attention only to Bishop Walden's estimate of Argentine institutions, which is far more favorable than Theodore Child's late article, and to Mr. Conway's researches upon the subject of Washington's English ancestry; and we barely mention the interesting attempt of Mr. Lawrence to rebuild Roman London in fancy, and to describe its merchant life, and the very delightful Warwickshire views with which the number opens.

—It is not impossible that the new *International Journal of Ethics* (the third number of which lies before us) will mark a new stage in the gradual task of elevating the world's standards of ethical conduct. There is so much ferment at present in men's minds in regard to various questions upon which ethics have a bearing; there is such widespread dissatisfaction with the perpetuation by religion of outgrown ethical codes and the quieting of conscience by stifling rational thought; there is such a quickening of the feeling of our inability to endure the sufferings of the lowest classes (the reading of Edward Bellamy's book, Prof. Gizycki says, has made an epoch in the lives of many thousands)—that a medium for the application of scientific methods of thinking to pressing questions of belief and practice cannot fail to be of great importance. The present number of the *Journal* shows a marked advance, in the importance of its contributions, over the other two. It would be hard to bring together four articles of greater weight than the four with which it opens. Leslie Stephen upholds the English school of political economy and opposes socialism and absolute equality, in the interest of what may be formulated as *no inequality without sufficient reason*, as the ideal of a future rational Utopia. Prof. Toy discusses "The Religious Element in Ethical Codes," and reaches the conclusion that it has been, on the whole, of somewhat equal good and evil influence. Prof. William James writes, with the brilliancy and the moving quality to which the readers of his 'Psychology' are accustomed, on "The Moral Philosopher and the Moral Life." Prof. Gizycki's article, "The Right Final Aim of Life," shows a less substantial logical structure, but it starts discussion upon a subject to which there will doubtless be frequent occasion for returning. Miss Collet reminds her readers of the value of the old-fashioned moral tale in awakening the moral life in children, and says, what every parent will notice who tries the experiment, that children are intensely interested in discussions of conduct, and that it is only insincerity and namby-pambyism that they reject with unerring scorn.

—Dr. Otto Braun, who, for nearly thirty years, has been editor-in-chief of the Munich (formerly Augsburg) *Allgemeine Zeitung*, resigned this position on April 1. His retirement was due, not to any change in the political character of the paper or in the general principles on which it has been hitherto conducted, but solely to the fact that advancing age, attended by an affection of the eyes, rendered it increasingly difficult for him to discharge the arduous duties of his office. As a native of the rigidly conservative and feudalistic Hesse-Cassel, a young man of intelligence and independent spirit like Braun could hardly help beginning his political career as a Revolutionist. He was an associate and intimate friend of Carl Schurz, and, like him, was obliged to flee his country after the suppression of the revolutionary movement of 1848. He spent some time in Paris and then went to Spain, where he devoted himself to the study of Spanish literature, in which he is a recognized authority. The excellence of his numerous translations of Spanish poetry is universally conceded by his countrymen. On completing the twenty-fifth year of his editorship of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, he received the honorary degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Munich in recognition of his services to literature and science as a high-toned journalist. On the occasion of his retirement, a magnificent album, containing the photographs of the principal contributors to the paper, was presented to him. This collection includes the majority of the most distinguished scientists and men of letters in Germany, each of whom has written an original sentiment or poem on the back of his photograph. Dr. Braun is a person of fine taste and eminent discretion; he is an acute observer and has had an unusually wide experience, and his memoirs, if he would devote his leisure to the task of writing them, would be a valuable contribution to the history of the last half century. His editorial successors are Hugo Jacobi as editor-in-chief and Dr. Alfred Dove, a pupil of Ranke and professor in the University of Bonn, as editor of the *Beilage*.

—We may add that the place which the *Allgemeine Zeitung* holds among daily newspapers is quite unique. It was founded nearly a century ago by Baron von Cotta, by the advice of Schiller, who intended to edit it, but was prevented from doing so by ill-health. Although planned as early as 1793, circumstances did not favor its immediate publication. The first number was issued at Tübingen in 1798, under the editorship of the historian E. L. Posselt. In the same year it was transferred to Stuttgart, thence in 1803 to Ulm, and in 1816 to Augsburg, and finally, about ten years ago, to Munich. A peculiar feature of the journal is the *Beilage*, or literary supplement, which appears with the evening edition every day except Sundays, and contains elaborate articles on artistic, belletristic, philosophical, and scientific subjects, and thorough reviews of books, such as are commonly found only in weekly or monthly periodicals. It was in this *Beilage* that Döllinger assailed the decisions of the Vatican Council and exposed the historical and dogmatical untenableness of its decrees. Indeed, the last period in his intellectual development as a theologian, marked by his rupture with the Romish See on account of its Ultramontane tendencies, dates from his first connection with this sheet as a regular contributor in 1861. In short, it has always been the promoter of liberal intellectual movements in Germany, and the favorite organ of scholars for the popularization of their researches and the promulgation of their ideas from the time of Goethe to the present day. That it has suffered much tribulation from censorships during its long career hardly needs to be stated, and in several crises it required all the tact and energy and influence of Cotta to save it from suppression.

—"None of the larger London picture shows," writes a correspondent, "will attain a higher average than that reached in the annual exhibition of the New English Art Club, opened on the 13th of April. This club has been in existence nearly six years, but though at the start Mr. Sargent and Mr. Parsons were almost the only artists of made reputation who belonged to it, its influence is already marked; and though it has in its short career seen vicissitudes, its latest exhibition is really its best. In the beginning it was made up of three distinct groups among the younger and more brilliant British artists—the Cornwall men, the Scotchmen, and the handful of Londoners who accept Impressionism as their creed and Whistler as their master. Last year quarrels led to the desertion of the Cornish clique, success elsewhere kept the Scotch painters from contributing their most important work to its show, and it seemed as if the days of the Club's greatest artistic prosperity were at an end. To make matters worse, a too large and very badly lighted gallery was engaged, and to fill it far too many pictures were hung. Hitherto it had been one of the great charms of the Club's exhibitions that merit rather than number was the chief standard of the Hanging Committee. This spring there has been a return in the right direction. The show is given in the very small Dudley Gallery in Piccadilly, and only about a hundred canvases are included, no exhibitor being allowed to contribute more than two. Thus, it has not been necessary to accept anything and everything just to cover the walls, while the pictures can all be seen comfortably and pleasantly in an afternoon's visit. Many men one looks for here are unfortunately absent. There is nothing by Mr. Whistler, Mr. Sargent, Mr. Alexander Harrison, Mr. Parsons, or Mr. Stott of Oldham. The Newlynites have not come back to the fold; several of the leading Scotchmen do not exhibit. But then, on the other hand, almost every picture, with the exception of a small outbreak of sham Manets, has been painted because the painter had something to say for himself and wanted to say it in his own way. For that which makes the work of most of the exhibitors interesting, even when one cannot honestly like or commend it, is the desire always manifested in it to solve some new artistic problem. There is among them no slavery to hide-bound tradi-

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tions and conventions. To Royal Academicians and the average British artist, they stand in very much the same relations as the Frenchmen who exhibit in the Champ de Mars hold to those who remain faithful to the Champs Élysées. The most noteworthy work has been contributed by Mr. P. Wilson Steer, who very sensibly has ceased to be the mere reflection of Monet he at one time tried to make himself, Mr. Walter Sickert, Mr. Sidney Starr, and Mr. Paul Maitland, all of whom call themselves Impressionists. Their names as yet are little known in England, hardly at all in America; but if they continue to do work as good as that which they exhibit this year and to make such worthy artistic experiments, they must in the end command the respect of the public, now rather inclined to ridicule them, as they have already aroused the interest of all artists, even of those who differ from them entirely in theory and method."

FREEMAN CLARKE.

James Freeman Clarke: Autobiography, Diary, and Correspondence. Edited by Edward Everett Hale. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

We have here a book which hardly keeps the promise of its title-page in some particulars and does more than that in others. The "Diary and Correspondence" are much less in quantity than the editing. Dr. Clarke was not a diarist in the manner which gives diaries their principal if sometimes questionable value to the reading world. He does not pour out his soul, nor does he indulge in lively and satirical characterizations of his acquaintances and friends. His diary, at least as given, is but a meagre and extremely partial record of things done or planned. It reflects the writer's busy, crowded life. If there was more than this at hand, it has been repressed by the spirit of delicate reserve, the distaste for intimate disclosures, which is a characteristic aspect of the book. It is evident from the fragment of autobiography and from the known habit of Dr. Clarke's conversation—full of personal incident and recollection—that if he had attempted a diary dealing frankly and freely with persons and events, it would not have needed any spice of malice, which he had not to give, to make it of engrossing interest. But he was too intent upon the task work of his ministry, and too earnest in his public spirit and reformatory zeal, for such delightful play.

The correspondence, also, has a disappointing character, but only from its slightness relatively to the whole book. Dr. Clarke's letters and parts of letters are only eighty-nine all told, and they are generally so good we wish them more, and wonder why they are not. They admit us much more than does the diary to the writer's bright and happy and affectionate disposition. He was a devout astronomer, by inheritance from his father, who could do almost anything but make a living, and in 1859 he went to Illinois to see a total eclipse of the sun. The letter describing the event is remarkably impressive. His deep interest in astronomy, showing itself here and in his little manual, 'How to Find the Stars,' with the lantern he invented for the student's help, was a delightful manifestation of his versatile intelligence. Some of the earliest letters are among the most interesting, for they are written to Emerson, and we have the replies. Clarke was then (1838) preaching in Louisville, Ky., and George Keats, a brother of John, was his chief companion. Clarke was editing the *Western Messenger*, and Emerson sent him for it "The Humble Bee," "The Rhodora," and "Good bye, proud world." There are also early letters to Margaret Fuller and Wm. Henry Channing, and in these, with the Emerson letters, we feel the pulse of the Transcendentalist Movement beating strong.

The "Autobiography" is a fragment eighty pages long. Of its six chapters, the second and third, which for the most part appeared in the *March Atlantic*, received, in our notes upon the March magazines, their rightful meed of praise. They are not more delightful than the other parts, and the whole fills us with sorrow that Dr. Clarke did not sooner take his task in hand. The fragment was written in 1883, and, effortless as it appears, the weary pen was laid aside when all the best remained to tell. The chapter on his Cambridge studies, which was not included in the *Atlantic* extracts, deals with the Harvard of 1825–29 with extreme severity. It appealed to emulation, not to curiosity; to the love of rank, not to the love of knowledge. A solitary exception is made in favor of Prof. Farrar's teaching in physics. Clarke's three years in the Divinity School have no memorial from his own hand. The concluding chapters, on his Kentucky ministry, are equally interesting and instructive; the latter as exhibiting the relations of the public mind to slavery in the third decade of the century. The pro-slavery sentiment was much less "vigorous and rigorous," the anti-slavery sentiment much more widespread, and its speech much freer, than at a later day.

No other aspect of Dr. Clarke's life is set forth with so much clearness, force, and justice as his anti-slavery activity, thanks to his friend and classmate Samuel May, who furnishes in chapter xiii. a monograph of nearly forty pages on his anti-slavery attitude and work. The personal matter has, as was proper, a succinct historical setting. The comparatively full account of Clarke's Kentucky writing and speaking is highly creditable to his conscience and his courage, and is, at the same time, significant of a public mood more tractable than is generally remembered now, and soon to be succeeded by another which, had he come in contact with it, would have proved his soul much more effectually. That he would have been equal to the trial we cannot doubt, though it had meant, as for Lovejoy, the spoiling of his goods, and martyrdom. He was never wanting in moral or in physical courage. For the last, witness his going to the top of Salisbury spire, the last thirty feet on the outside by means of iron staples, and standing beside the vane four hundred feet in air, a story to which the vivid imagination of Mr. Hale has added nothing. Dr. Clarke was never formally an abolitionist, but was in as sympathetic relations with the anti-slavery societies as any one not with them altogether. It will be refreshing to the Unitarian mind to read that in 1845 he was one of 173 Unitarian ministers signing a vigorous protest against slavery as inhuman and unChristian. This must have been a large majority of all the ministers of the body. The writing of the protest fell to Dr. Clarke. Mr. May follows his anti-slavery spirit through the war and all its subsequent manifestations. He says—and coming from him, one of the last surviving of Garrison's first lieutenants, it is praise from Sir Hubert Stanley—"Few men, except the most devoted members of the Anti-Slavery Society, gave more time, thought, and labor to the overthrow of slavery than Mr. Clarke did."

There are still fourteen chapters unaccounted for, and the bulk of these is evidently from the editorial hand, the fusion of it with the diary and letters being less complete than an ideal standard would demand. What Mr. Hale has written is extremely sympathetic; perhaps too eulogistic for the best effect; a little honest difference here and there would have been reassuring. Where it is so difficult to find a fault, the wise biographer will imagine a possible one to save himself from that monotony of praise which, if it does not breed suspicion, makes the reader tired of hearing Aristides called the Just. There is little in Mr. Hale's chapters that is characteristically his, little of the concrete realism of his habitual manner; but, instead, much happy generalization. There is much discontinuity in the arrangement—sometimes between two sentences, as between two acts at the play, a dozen years are supposed to have elapsed; and there are omissions of surprising laxity. For example, the index gives but one reference to Dr. Clarke's 'Ten Great Religions' when there should have been three, but the mention in the text in every case is purely incidental. Yet here was a book which, without being very scholarly or thorough for the time when it was written, and while maintaining a central thesis of quite doubtful validity, has done more than any other to increase the popular appreciation of the non-Christian religions and rebuke the arrogance of Christian pride; to say "than all others" would hardly be too much. Another singular omission is that of any proper mention of Dr. Clarke's poetic faculty. It is implied in several poems given in full, the book ending with the last and most beautiful he ever wrote (April 4, 1888, his birthday, a few weeks before his death); but there is no mention of his many noble hymns, nor of his translations in 'Exotics,' seventy-four out of the ninety, showing a gift of quite remarkable genius in this kind.

Another omission is that of any circumstance pertaining to the establishment of Dr. Clarke's society in the "Indiana Place Chapel." Suddenly we find the Society there, and chapel and service are very prettily described by Dr. Holmes in his character of Professor at the Breakfast Table. On the 26th of January, 1845, Mr. Clarke exchanged with Theodore Parker, and the day is set down in his diary as "Black Sunday," which argues that the secession straightway of fifteen parishioners did not take him by surprise. The page given to this matter is but scant for its importance, and with Dr. Clarke's direct political activity we are made acquainted even less liberally. There is no mention of his vigorous opposition to Butler's pretensions in Massachusetts politics, except a casual one, by Mr. Higginson (in an excellent account of his relation to the agitation for the political rights of women), of Dr. Clarke's happy phrase, in the Republican Convention, "A bolt is always in order." The suspicion can hardly be escaped that Mr. Hale's easy-going optimism has made him somewhat inappreciative of the capacity for moral indignation in his friend. To any one who knows what it meant for Dr. Clarke to take the course he did in 1884, how utterly inadequate will seem the treatment of that matter! There is not a hint that it had any tragic implication. Hardly worth noticing in comparison is the reference to the Unitarian Convention of 1865 which instituted the National Conference. There, for once, Mr. Hale drops into fiction palpably. The "harmonious convention" deserves and will receive the tribute of a smile from those who know how very inharmonious it was. The date of Dr. Freeman's installation at King's Chapel "without the help of any bishop" is given as 1782, when it was 1787; and the younger Henry

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Ware (p. 89) did not succeed Emerson as pastor of the Second Church in Boston, but was succeeded by him.

But, however deficient in some respects Mr. Hale's chapters, and however defective in others, they do not fail to bring out clearly in the main the course of Dr. Clarke's experience, the force and beauty of his character, and the range and quality of his work. The faithful minister is here, the industrious writer, the social and political reformer, full of energy and hope, a man rich in friendships and in domestic love and peace, made tenderer by pathetic loss. The closer we come home to him in his personal life, the more does he engage our admiration. He came to Boston in 1840, hoping to make a new society quite different from others of the time, and he had large success, though not in all the particulars of his hope. As a "free church" the Church of the Disciples was less and less successful as the years went on. His liberality was inspiration and encouragement to many younger men; then came the scientific wave and carried them beyond him, leaving him, strangely enough, for twenty years to wear the honors and to suffer the reproaches of a conservative position. From being the critic of the "Unitarian orthodoxy" that was denounced by Channing, he became its representative man, but it was a new orthodoxy when he became so, and he had done as much as any one, except Theodore Parker, to make it so.

In another respect his later did not fulfil the promise of his earlier life: there was less of intellectual freedom in his mental operations as time went on. Consider the long list of his theological and religious writings after 1850, and the trail of the apologist is over them all. Their rationalism is their dominant chord—rationalism in its narrower German sense: the explaining away of what seems irrational; the plausible smoothing over of real difficulties with unreal solutions. And this was so because the impulse to do good was the controlling impulse of his life. He deliberately accepted the tendency to good or evil in a doctrine as a test of truth, and all doctrines appealed to him preeminently as calculated to increase the amount of goodness in the world and soothe its sorrow and distress. He was not a profound thinker nor a careful scholar, and he did not win the audience of those who care a great deal for serious thinking and for careful study. Of this he was aware, and by it he was not troubled, for he had great compensations. He spoke to hundreds once a week, he wrote for many thousands every day. The circulation of his writings was immense, and it answered the prayer of his youth, for it brought into the communion of his invisible church thousands who were not of the Unitarian fold. No other has done so much to commend Unitarianism to orthodox believers, and few, if any, have done more to break down the sectarian divisions of our American life.

MEYER'S KILIMANJARO.

Across East African Glaciers: An Account of the First Ascent of Kilimanjaro. By Dr. Hans Meyer. Translated from the German by E. H. S. Calder. With 40 illustrations and 3 maps. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. Royal 8vo, pp. xx, 404.

NGAJE NGAI, the House of God, as the Masai call Kilimanjaro, is in many respects the most remarkable mountain in the world. An isolated mass, it rises more than 17,000 feet above the level of the surrounding plain, surpassing by 3,000 feet Ararat's elevation above the Armenian plateau. Lying only three degrees south of the equator, there is upon its slopes every variety of climate and vegetation. Within a range of twenty miles the traveller passes from the sun-scorched barren steppe, where the rain is scanty, through a tropical paradise with perennial streams bordered by gardens and plantations, through a region of perpetual moisture whose dense vegetation is a survival of the carboniferous age, by alpine pastures, to the summit where is eternal ice and snow. Although it was known from native reports to the Portuguese in the early part of the sixteenth century as the Ethiopian Mount Olympus, it was not seen by a European until 1848. Since that time it has been visited frequently by travellers, hunters, and missionaries, and a monthly post now binds it closely with the civilized world. In the recent partition of Eastern Africa between Germany and England the mountain was given to the former country, at the express request of the Emperor, it is said; England receiving the forest oasis, Taveta, at its foot. As this is the rendezvous of all caravans to or from the coast, its possession implies a control of the trade with the mountain tribes—an advantage which Germany, apparently, was slow to recognize. While the southern face of Kilimanjaro is well known, and has often been described, few travellers have climbed to the barren plateau from which its two peaks rise. Only one serious attempt, in fact, had been made to reach the top before that of which this sumptuous volume is the record. This was by Dr. Meyer himself, and it failed because of insufficient preparation. Profiting by this experience, he organized a new expedition expressly for this object, and finally succeeded in planting the German flag on the highest peak, though at a cost of toil and exposure hardly commensurate with the results obtained.

The main purpose of the book is, of course, to describe this ascent, but some of the preliminary chapters, briefly sketching the history of the mountain and narrating the incidents of the march from the coast, are among the most interesting of all. The author is unusually successful in picturing the make-up of the caravan and the ordinary incidents of life in camp and upon the road. The daily morning routine is as follows:

"At the first streak of dawn I awake and call Ali, the captain of my Somál. Immediately the camp begins to show signs of animation. '*Ondoka, funga mkeka*' (Get up, fold up your mats!) cry the headmen. Yawning, and still half asleep, the men bestir themselves, crawl out of their cosey rugs, in which they have passed the night on the ground, gird up their loin-cloths, and begin to drag their loads from the stack in which they have been piled over night. The Somál and Askari set to work to strike the tents and pack the beds and other furniture, keeping time to a rhythmic chant the while. Meantime our cook brings us a cup of steaming cocoa, which we drink standing, and snatch a morsel of cold meat. '*Tayari?*' (ready?) I inquire of the headman. '*Tayari*' (ready) is the reply. Having noted the time and the readings of my thermometer and barometer, I give the word to start, '*Haya!*' and the caravan falls into marching order."

While actually on the road, Dr. Meyer's own duties are sufficiently arduous:

"With the very first step begins the troublesome task of plotting the route. At every slight change of direction I consult my watch and my compass, and carefully make a note of the readings. At every perceptible change of level I do the same by the aneroid. If any considerable hill or mountain comes in sight, I take its bearings by the prismatic compass, and the result is likewise recorded in my field-book. Thus every two or three minutes some observation has to be made, not to speak of the bearings that are taken without making a halt. I never have my instruments out of my hand until we are in camp again."

The first view of the mountain was in the early morning while they were still a long distance from the foot. A thick cold fog which had enveloped the camp during the night was suddenly rent apart by the first rays of the sun, "and above the clouds—apparently suspended in mid-air—hung the snowy dome of Kibo, the mountain's highest peak. Its sister-peak, the Mawenzi, was hidden behind a mass of heavy cumulus cloud—all except the magnificent unbroken sweep of its northeastern slope."

The mountain tribes known as the Wa-jagga, inhabit a tract of five hundred square miles in extent, which lies between an elevation of 3,600 feet and the lower edge of the forest. They are twenty in number, and live in a state of chronic war with each other—a condition which is encouraged by the Arabs, who buy as slaves the unfortunate natives taken captive in these wars. Although in a very backward stage of civilization, they have devised an admirable system of irrigation, and are exceedingly industrious. "On every ridge and hollow, and along the banks of every stream, men, women, and children alike were busy with hoe and mattock preparing the ground for the sowing of maize, millet, and beans, and the planting of tobacco, bananas, and sugar cane, at the commencement of the approaching wet season. With the utmost care the plantations are cleared of all old roots and stumps, and the artificial irrigation channels thoroughly repaired where necessary." Dr. Meyer made his headquarters at the boma of Mareale, chief of Marangu, of whom he gives a most favorable account as a remarkably intelligent negro and a wise and just ruler. In this latter respect he contrasts strongly with the better-known Mandara, for more than twenty years the chief of Moji. Leaving the most of his followers at this place, he proceeded with a few picked men to make a camp in the upper edge of the forest just half way from the summit. Then, with his white companion and a coast negro of exceptional vigor and trustworthiness, he climbed to the saddle-plateau connecting the two peaks, where, at a height of 14,200 feet, he pitched his tent. Here he was able to stay nearly three weeks, as he received supplies every third day from the half-way station, which in its turn was provisioned from the main camp. During this time he made four ascents of Kibo and three attempts at Mawenzi. These latter were unsuccessful, because of the extraordinarily steep and jagged character of its lava precipices. Their constant disintegration, causing incessant avalanches of earth and stones, was also a serious danger to the climbers.

The ascent of Kibo was toilsome and perilous. The last 2,000 feet was up a series of ice precipices, broken by yawning cracks and crevasses, the last forming a blue wall of pure ice varying in height from 15 to 260 feet. This was finally scaled, and on October 5, 1889, the flag was planted, at an altitude of 19,720 feet, on "the loftiest spot in Africa and in the German Empire—Kaiser Wilhelm's Peak." The summit was found to be a crater with a diameter of a little less than half a mile and from six to seven hundred feet deep. Through a notch in the western wall the accumulated ice of the caldera falls as a mighty cascade, and flows down the mountain-side "a glacier of the first order." In the centre of the crater is a cone whose ice-free top indicates that some internal heat is still retained in the long-extinct volcano. Their party's stay on the pla-

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teau was marked by few incidents. The extremes of temperature were very trying, the summer heat of midday being succeeded at night by cold as great at times as 6° Fahrenheit. "On one occasion, in the course of a single quarter of an hour, the thermometer fell from 83° to 33° Fahrenheit, and whenever the mist came as the herald of a snow-storm the fall was even greater." Animal life was naturally very scanty, though elephants and eland were seen at a great height above the forest, and the body of an antelope was found within the crater itself! Besides, there were "a few rock swallows, stonechats, lizards, beetles, spiders, and bees, all of a uniform dark gray color—a sombre tint which not only absorbs the rays of the sun, but also makes the animals invisible to their enemies against the dark background of the prevailing volcanic rocks." The predominant color of the vegetation, "alike of leaf and stem and flower, is the blue anthocyan tint, which possesses the remarkable property of absorbing the intense light of these upper regions and transforming it into heat."

The approach of the rainy season prevented any further exploration of the mountain, and Dr. Meyer was obliged to descend without having traced the great glacier to its foot. Nor was he able to examine the northern slope, which differs very materially from the southern. It is much steeper, and has a comparatively small rainfall, so that the belt corresponding to the fertile Jagga is pasture land occupied by the Masai and their great herds of cattle. Before he returned to the coast, however, he made an excursion to the little-known Ugweno, a mountainous region lying some twenty miles south of Kilimanjaro. On the road a tremendous thunder-storm burst over them. "The flashes of lightning followed each other at the rate of forty to the minute, with an effect which was literally blinding. The sky seemed to be one vast sheet of flame; but I noticed that the electrical discharges mostly occurred among the clouds, and did not strike the earth. This fact goes far to explain why the negro, who, as a rule, stands in such awe of the forces of nature, has no fear of a thunder-storm." On the return march the camp was suddenly attacked by an army of driver-ants (which always carry on their marauding expeditions during the night), and had to be abandoned. In this army

> "there are three distinct classes or castes. It is officered, as it were, by the largest and strongest class, the members of which are distributed at stated intervals throughout the procession. They are provided with sharp, horned mandibles as long as the insect's body, and their work is to seize and, if possible, slay every living thing that comes in their way. The booty is next torn to pieces by the larger of the two classes which make up the rank and file, which are provided for the purpose with sharp, straight mandibles, about half the length of their bodies. The pieces are then taken up and carried away by the third and smallest class, which have their mandibles quite short."

Though these ants prey largely on insects, they do not hesitate to attack harmless reptiles, and even some of the smaller mammals.

The last chapter contains a brief geological history of the mountain, a description and explanation of its peculiar meteorological phenomena, and the author's views in respect to the German interests in East Africa. His views differ materially from those of most writers upon the development of this part of the continent. In respect to the German Protectorate he says, four-fifths is an "unending waste of barren, almost uninhabited steppe, savannah, and bush." Even the most valuable part is practically worthless; "from a European standpoint, the commercial value of the products of Kilimanjaro so far is *nil*." He holds that it is a grave mistake to attempt to establish stations in the interior, on account both of the unhealthiness of the climate and of the unproductiveness of the soil, and that Germany's true policy is to confine her operations to the coast, leaving the natives to bring in their produce "after their own time-honored fashion, which would seem after all to be the one best suited to the nature of the country." There are several appendixes, in which some of the scientific results of the expedition are given. These include lists of more than two hundred different species of lichens and mosses, many of them new, to the collection of which Dr. Meyer and his companion gave particular attention. A bibliography of works and papers in scientific journals referring to the Kilimanjaro region contains two hundred and eighteen titles, mostly in German and English.

It is difficult to praise too highly the typographical beauty of this volume and the excellence of its illustrations and maps. A word also should be said in commendation of the translation, which is admirably done, even the purely scientific passages being rendered into clear and idiomatic English. The work as a whole, we do not hesitate to say, should be placed in the first rank of books on Africa. Its range is necessarily more restricted than many and its additions to our knowledge are comparatively unimportant, but it is surpassed by few in sustained interest, in picturesque detail, in apparent truthfulness of description, and especially in the impression left of the author as a man just in his dealings with the natives, and one who inspired his followers with confidence and affection.

RECENT SPANISH FICTION.

Angel Guerra. Por B. Pérez Galdós. Madrid: La Guirnalda. 1891.

Nubes de Estío. Por José María De Pereda. Madrid: M. Tello. 1891.

Scum. By Valdés. Authorized edition. United States Book Company.

Doña Luz. By Juan Valera. Translated by Mary J. Serrano. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

If fecundity is one of the marks of the higher order of creative genius, Señora Bazán is undoubtedly right in claiming it for her contemporary, Galdós. In sight now of his fiftieth volume, he writes with undiminished vigor, on as generous a plan as ever, and with the best qualities of his style still undimmed. His story this time is of a man who starts out as a Socialist, concerned in an abortive revolution, the companion of men and women of easy morals, and who ends a conservative property-holder, desperately in love with a woman who is bent on becoming a sister of charity. The successive steps of this transformation are traced for us with Galdós's accustomed skill. The scene between the scapegrace Angel and his proud old mother on her deathbed, where each maintains an appearance of believing in the other, though a stream of accusation and recrimination is all the while flowing hot in their minds, each divining the other's feigning, each more than half suspecting that the assumed manner is no real mask to the other, yet each using only language of affection, until at last a chance gesture lets the torrents loose—this scene, with its clear insight and dramatic development, is masterly. The author adds one more to his gallery of children's portraits—that of a six-year-old girl whose preternaturally, or, as it turns out, morbidly, active mind keeps the reader on the stretch to imagine what she will say or do next.

Pereda valiantly sticks to his province, in his latest novel, though he leaves his beloved peasants and fishermen for the time being, to give us a picture of society in the city of Santander at the present day, when the "Summer Clouds" in the shape of Madrid fashionables are there to take the baths. All classes of these summer visitors he had already hit off for us in his 'Tipos Trashumantes,' and, as far as they are concerned, we simply meet old friends in this story. The gist of it is the scheme of an impecunious nobleman from the capital to marry a spendthrift son of his to the daughter of a wealthy and snobbish merchant of Santander, the delight of the latter's family at the thought of such a distinguished alliance, the supposed acquiescence of the young lady interested, and the final catastrophe brought on by her resolute refusal to go on with the affair, and her determination to remain faithful to a provincial lover whose existence was unknown to her parents. The author, as usual, cares little for his plot except as furnishing him an opportunity for those minute characterizations which are his delight and his inimitable distinction. They fairly swarm in the volume. The Madrid journalist, "doing" the summer resorts on the northern coast for his paper, is himself "done" with a realism quite beyond his own command. A most vigorous defence of provincial taste both in literature and art is put into the mouth of one of the characters, as against the lofty and, Pereda says, unfounded assumptions of Madrid. It gives one a shock to find such an authority as his for the assertion that the only epic poet Spain ever had is now living, and writing in Catalan, and that the finest descriptive genius since Cervantes is also using that dialect.

In Valdés's last novel, appearing simultaneously in English and Spanish, he adds to his pictures of manners in the provinces an alleged picture of the life of the Madrid aristocracy. We say alleged, because he has been accused by responsible critics of gross ignorance of the society which he pretends to paint. Luis Alfonso filled a couple of columns in *La Epoca* with details showing Valdés's lack of acquaintance with aristocratic customs in the capital, and Señor Gomez de Baquero had more to say in the same line in the same paper. Most formidable of all comes Señora Bazán, in her *Teatro Critico* for February, saying that "'La Espuma' discovers the author's almost absolute ignorance of the medium in which his characters move." This round assertion she has, of course, the best right in the world to maintain as respects the aristocracy of blood, and she declares also that it will stand not only for "the *blue* aristocracy, but also for the *yellow*, or *bank-note colored*," of which the novel principally treats. This is a terrible indictment for a writer who piques himself on his realism. And when we take into account Valdés's virtuous forswearing of adultery as a motive for a novel, in his preface to 'La Hermana San Sulpicio,' and his cool charge that the French use of it was purely mercenary, and then discover that his latest story reeks with adultery, we come upon something more than an artistic fault. In Pereda's novel noticed above there is a passage which is so astonishingly applicable to this book of Valdés's that it seems as if it must have been aimed at it. He describes a provincial author staying long enough in Madrid to pick up all the salacious gossip of the gilded youth of the capital, and then going home to launch a book on Madrid society. "But

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the fact is, that no such frail marchionesses exist, nor such swindling bankers, nor any of the things set forth in the book; none of it ever was true or ever will be; and what shadow of truth there is in it is of an entirely distinct sort —elegant, distinguished, such as can be neither understood nor described by the ingenious rustic who has ventured out of his wilds in an evil hour for his reputation."

An introduction is furnished by Mr. Edmund Gosse, the editor of "Lovell's Foreign Series," in which 'Scum' ranks as No. 9. It consists of a hurried sketch of the development of the modern Spanish novel, and an appreciation of Valdés. As it is confessedly based upon second-hand knowledge, it occasions no surprise to find it inadequate and, in some respects, positively misleading. Thus, to call Fernan Caballero the leader of the romantic school, is a blunder from which Mr. Gosse would have been saved if he had more carefully read the volume of Señora Bazán's from which he makes a single quotation, 'La Cuestión Palpitante.' One can only gasp at the hideous mistranslation allowed to stand in the introduction, "The Idyll of a Farm" for "El Idilio de un Enfermo." The English title, 'Scum,' by the way, is a vile rendering of 'La Espuma'; the latter word is in perfectly good use to denote the upper ten of society. The translation, in general, is faithful, but is marked by an extraordinary number of slips, evidently due to sheer carelessness, and by too many gross blunders. We cannot take space to enumerate these, but may assure the reader of the English version that wherever he comes upon a passage that is perfectly mystifying or absurd on its face, he may lay the blame upon the translator, not upon Valdés. We must make mention, however, of the remarkable liberties taken with the text of the original. Phrases, paragraphs, and one entire chapter are bodily omitted, and new chapter-divisions with improvised headings are introduced. The excisions are made on the score of grossness, apparently, but, after all, nothing could be more gross than some of the parts that are left in, and, in any case, the reader ought to be advised that he has an expurgated edition in his hand.

Valera's 'Doña Luz' has the distinction and purity of style that mark all the writings of that Spanish classicist. The story he has to tell almost gains importance by his exquisite manner of telling it. Still, when all is done, it is only a simple and graceful tale, not touching life broadly or at many points. Valera's own preface (not translated) shows that he has a more modest idea of his performance than that entertained in the region of Franklin Square. The translation is such as was to be expected of Mrs. Serrano; if she has not been able to preserve the full charm and grace of the original, it is because they are beyond the reach of any translation.

CARD GAMES.

The Handbook of Games. Enlarged edition, with contributions by Dr. William Pole, F.R.S., Maj.-Gen. Drayson, Robert F. Green, "Berkeley," and "Baxter-Wray." Vol. II. Card Games. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford.

The Laws of Euchre (as adopted by the Somerset Club of Boston March 1, 1888). With some suggestions about the play. By H. C. Leeds and James Dwight. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Practical Guide to Whist by the latest scientific methods (with the laws of the game). By Fisher Ames. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Thirty-nine Articles of Whist. Printed for private distribution.

The first book on our list belongs to the useful Bohn's Library, and is a most elaborate revision of the work on games hitherto sold in that series. The chapters on Whist and on Piquet are greatly modified; the descriptions of certain games are altogether omitted, as the games have lost their popularity, and explanations are added of new games which have come into favor within the past few years. It must always be borne in mind that this volume, like the other handbooks of Bohn's series, is of purely British authorship and is calculated solely for the meridian of London. To recall this constantly is to minimize our surprise at the omission of Boston and of All-Fours, "which are seldom played nowadays," the editor tells us; the fact being that Boston is still very popular in certain clubs in New York, and that "Old Sledge" has an unshaken hold on the affections of the Southwest, where indeed euchre is its only rival. Euchre is one of the added games, making its first appearance here with poker and bézique.

A book which all card-lovers would welcome would be a history of card games, showing how they are related one to another, and how they are developed in groups one out of another, and how they follow one another in and out of fashion. The history of whist has been written by the late Abraham Hayward; and the history of piquet and of écarté and of more than one other game has been prepared by "Cavendish" to serve as a preface to his practical treatise on the playing of the game. But there is no general history covering the whole subject and declaring the date of the decline of ombre, for example, and of quadrille, and setting forth the rise of whist, and the slow evolution of poker from the Elizabethan post-and-pair. Boston takes its name from the capital of Massachusetts, though we doubt if it was ever fashionable there. Nap, if we may believe "Baxter-Wray," is also of American origin, which we are much inclined to doubt. From "Berkeley's" account of the introduction of bézique into England, it is certain that the game was popular here several years before it had spread over Great Britain; it came to us from France. Piquet is now more often played in London than in New York, although it is gaining favor here at a great rate, and very properly, as it is an ideal game for two players. Indeed, one might say that as whist is indisputably the finest of games for four, so is piquet the finest of games for two.

Of games for three players there are very few indeed. Cut-throat euchre is the abomination of desolation; bézique suits three fairly, and three can play cribbage with a triangular board to great advantage. But perhaps there is no more satisfactory three-handed game than cassino, simple as it seems; sad to relate, "Baxter-Wray" presents it here as a mere round game and in a most elementary form, making no mention of "building," which gives variety to the play and allows of the adroit inferences and the speculative risks which are the essence of a good card game. We must remark, also, that the same writer treats poker as a mere round game also, and that he fails altogether to apprehend the vital principle of that most fascinating of scientific pastimes. This vital principle is, that a three-fold option must be offered to every player at every stage of the game—he may "go out," he may "call," or he may "raise." The use of the joker is an absurdity, and the prevalence of the jack-pot is greatly to be deplored. Just what "Baxter-Wray" means by one of his assertions we cannot guess. "The suit of hearts, *ceteris paribus*, takes precedence of other suits" (p. 31). This is rank nonsense.

Considering that "Berkeley" acknowledges that rubicon piquet is superseding piquet *au cent*—as it should, for it is a finer and subtler game—we wonder why rubicon piquet was not given the place of honor instead of being relegated to a secondary position after the departing piquet *au cent*. On the whole, "Berkeley's" exposition of piquet is not as clear as "Cavendish's"; and the most valuable part of his treatise is the elaborate calculation of the odds. Nor is his discussion of euchre as thorough or as satisfactory as that contained in the little book by Mr. Leeds and Dr. Dwight. What is of most value in the British book are the carefully calculated tables of chances. But the play of a lone hand is more elaborately considered in the Boston book; and the laws of the game as adopted by the Somerset Club have brought order out of chaos, and should be followed by all serious euchre-players. We could wish that some club of equal position would codify the laws of poker, using as a basis the proposed code drawn up by Gen. Schenck in England to oblige his hostess.

In 1879 Mr. Fisher Ames published in Harper's Half-Hour Series a little treatise called 'Modern Whist,' in the hope "that a concise statement of the principles of whist in an inexpensive form may increase the general knowledge of the correct way of playing." The 'Practical Guide to Whist' which Mr. Ames now publishes is a far more elaborate work than the earlier booklet, and it justifies the claim advanced in its sub-title, of having adopted the "latest scientific methods." The "American leads" suggested by Mr. Trist of New Orleans, and developed by him in conjunction with Mr. Jones in London, are now adopted by the best players in this country and in England. They are arbitrary conventions, no doubt, but so are certain of the other modern improvements of the game; and they are not of frequent use, but they have approved themselves to the most advanced players, and Mr. Ames has done well to embody them in his guide.

The 'Thirty-nine Articles of Whist' is a four-page folder, on which an anonymous lover of the game has skilfully condensed the approved practice of the modern game as to original leads, subsequent leads, trump leads, return leads, the play of the second and the third hands, the signal, the echo, and the discard. Here again Mr. Trist's invention is accepted. Ten "General Remarks" are added, pertinent and to the point. These 'Thirty-nine Articles' may often be of great use to a novice striving earnestly to perfect his play. Perhaps Mr. Foster's 'Whist at a Glance' (to be read on a single playing-card) accomplishes the same purpose even more concisely.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. VII. Nos. 647 to 753. London: B. F. Stevens.

The manner in which these facsimiles are published is perhaps inevitable, but it makes them very tedious reading. Again and again are we taken over the same ground, and there is no evident reason to suppose that any subject or incident will ever be exhausted. If the editor could give us at once all the papers re-

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lating to one subject, he would certainly add to the interest of the collection. This is, perhaps, but a minor matter, for the chief value of the facsimiles must always be for reference, and for that purpose much will depend on the thoroughness of the index; still, the conscientious and thorough reader deserves some consideration.

The seventh volume, like its predecessors, is largely taken up with the correspondence of the American Commissioners in Paris in 1777, with the intrigues in which they were actively engaged, and with the base and sordid treachery which surrounded them. Deane continues to write his incessant "mémoires" in his florid handwriting. He is sensible and forcible enough, but how tired the clerks of the French Foreign Office must have been of him, and what a relief, to them as to us, when Franklin, on rare occasions, draws up a document. Lee grumbles and fumes at his fellow-Commissioners. Hynson and Carmichael, Paul Wentworth and Dr. Bancroft, Lieut.-Col. Smith, and that low wretch, George Lupton, pry about and lie and tell secrets. The Lieutenant of Police of Paris has his eye on them all (677). He has appointed a commissary and twelve *exempts* to watch over the American deputies and to spy on all persons communicating with them, or with the English Ambassador, Lord Stormont, and these underlings are ready to pursue any scent to the distant parts of the kingdom, at a moment's notice (694). Does diplomacy nowadays involve so much dirty work?

We may say for the American envoys that at least they were accomplishing their object of drawing France into the quarrel. The English Government, on its side, was failing in its attempts to carry on the war. "The Peculation in every profitable Branch of the service is represented to be enormous, and as usual It is attended with a shocking neglect of Every Comfort to the Troops," writes Wedderburn to Eden (707, Sept. 6, 1777). "The Hospitals are Pest-houses, and the Provisions served out are Poison, those that are to be bought are sold at the highest prices of a Monopoly." And that he tells truth is shown three years later, when Sir Henry Clinton writes to the same person: "Not an ounce of this year's provision arrived. If it does not soon we literally starve" (743).

The latter part of this volume is partly occupied by reports addressed to William Eden in England by William Smith, the Tory Chief Justice of New York. We see in these letters the hopes and fears of the Loyalists, their discontent at Clinton's incapacity and at his continual squabbles with Admiral Arbuthnot. "If nothing is done, and you pay for that nothing, I would mulct two People I could name, to raise a Temple to Concord," writes Smith at the end of 1780 (746). The Chief Justice was a patriot, and had long hesitated which side to take in the contest. Although his loyalty to the old Government had carried him into the Tory ranks, he was not disposed to favor arbitrary measures. Expecting that Lord Cornwallis will soon conquer Virginia and prophesying other successes, he writes to Eden as to the proper course for the powers in England:

"But are you ready to secure what you may [have] acquired? If the military are to govern as well as conquer—govern *the Loyal*, who have assisted to dethrone the usurpers, prepare to empty your Island to garison this Continent. From the moment in which it is possible to convene a friendly assembly, the Power of the army should be confined to its proper duty, or it will convert Friends into Foes." . . . "If every Thing is to be left to chances till the moment of the construction, I insist that Lord Mansfield be the Head of the next commission to America. No matter for his Library—his own Notes excepted" (734).

We see from this that William Smith was quite ready to speak his mind freely. That he attributed a sufficient importance to his own opinions, when given, we may infer from an anecdote told in Sabine's 'American Loyalists' (vol. ii., p. 313). After the British evacuation of New York in 1783, Smith moved to Canada and was made Chief Justice of that province, but continued to take a warm interest in the affairs of his native country. In 1789, when the Federal Constitution was under discussion, Dr. Mitchell of New York happened to be visiting Smith in Quebec. One evening the Chief Justice called his visitor into his study, and, after searching among his papers, pulled out one which contained a plan of government composed by himself. The piece was long, elaborate, and well written, and closely resembled the Constitution proposed by the Federal Convention of 1787; the Constitution of the United States, in fact, under which we live to-day. After reading his manuscript aloud, Smith thus addressed Dr. Mitchell:

"This, sir, is the copy of a letter which I sent to a member of congress in 1775, who was an intimate friend of Gen. Washington. You may trace to this source the sentiments in favour of a more energetic government for your country, contained in the Commander-in-Chief's circular letters, and from this there can be no doubt that the citizens of all the States derived their leading hints for your new form of government."

Report of the Birds of Pennsylvania. By B. H. Warren, M.D., Ornithologist, Pennsylvania State Board of Agriculture. 2d ed. Harrisburg. 8vo. 1890.

It has long been the policy of the Government to foster scientific research, and the volumes put forth by experts in one or another branch of science are both numerous and costly. These volumes have done much to spread a knowledge of our country and its products at home and abroad, and to create a belief that in its patronage of science our Government is wise and liberal beyond most others. The course of the general Government is, in this respect, followed also by the State governments, though on a less extensive scale. That of Pennsylvania has lately issued a volume which in many respects is notable both for its general excellence and for its practical utility. Some two years ago the State Ornithologist completed an illustrated volume on the birds of the State with especial reference to their food-habits. So great was the demand for it that the edition was soon exhausted, and the present is a second edition, enlarged and revised.

The investigations upon which the practical side of the first book was based were due to the fact that thousands of dollars had been expended by several of the counties in payment for the scalps of birds of prey. Under the impression that certain animals—among them hawks and owls—were injurious to agriculture, their destruction was undertaken at the expense of the State. The Westchester Microscopical Society, becoming interested in the matter, took an active part in measures which resulted in the repeal of the unjust and obnoxious law. The scope of the present volume has been somewhat extended, and its chief purpose is to furnish the people of Pennsylvania with a book on the birds of their own State which shall be intelligible and interesting to plain, every-day people with no pretensions to scientific education, and particularly to give to the farmers all available information as to the food-habits of birds.

The author begins with a brief introduction, including a geographical description of the State and a list of the few technical terms indispensable in describing birds, the application of which is made plain by illustrations. The main body of the work occupies 331 pages, which are devoted to descriptions of the birds, to an account of their distribution over the State, and to their nesting and general habits. Each family is introduced by a general account of its distinctive features and the habits of its members, which is concise, yet clear and ample. The descriptions of the birds, while lacking the fulness usual in scientific treatises, are yet plain, simple, and sufficient for the purpose intended, viz., their identification. An appendix of ninety-two pages contains a history of the Pennsylvania Scalp Act, with the reasons for its enactment and repeal; extracts from the reports of the United States Department of Agriculture upon the economic relations of crows, hawks, owls, and the English sparrow; a tabulated list of the birds that struck the lighthouse at Atlantic City, N. J., during the autumn of 1889; a list of publications quoted in the report, and of observers who contributed to it, and a glossary of technical terms. The value and popular character of the work are much enhanced by the abundance of colored plates, which serve greatly to facilitate the task of identification.

We notice with pleasure that the act providing for the present edition authorizes the distribution of one thousand copies to the School Department, for use among educational establishments. Nowhere will a book on birds of this popular character be so thoroughly appreciated and do so much good as among teachers and school-children, and we believe that the number thus employed might have been judiciously increased.

The book is extremely well and tastefully bound, the typography is excellent, and in its general make-up it presents little of the rather forbidding aspect of the usual public document. Considered as a whole, it is an extremely creditable book both to its author and to the State of Pennsylvania. It is to be hoped that the example thus set may be followed by other States, and that a general systematic effort may be made to instruct the public in the life-history of birds, especially in their economic relations to man. In this way better than in any other is it possible to bring about an enlightened understanding of the value of birds, which, once gained, will have more effect in checking the present rage for killing birds for the sake of adornment than any number of sermons against that odious fashion.

English Fairy Tales. Collected by Joseph Jacobs, Editor of *Folk-Lore.* Illustrated by John D. Batten. London: D. Nutt.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. xiv., 253.

It was a pleasant surprise to read in Mr. Jacobs's preface: "Who says that English folk have no fairy tales of their own? The present volume contains only a selection out of some 140 of which I have traces in this country. It is probable that many more exist." We always supposed that many more had existed but had disappeared before the progress of education. In fact, since Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps published the first meagre collection of English nursery tales in 1849, almost nothing has been gleaned in this field. We have had copious collections of the Gaelic tales of Scotland

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and Ireland, but of English tales only a few have appeared from time to time in the pages of works devoted to folk-lore in general. It was a disappointment, then, to find that apparently Mr. Jacobs had had difficulty to bring together even forty-three English folk-tales, for of this number three are made out of ballads, one is not a folk-tale at all (No. xviii., Southey's 'The Three Bears'), four are Scotch, and two are survivals from America. All but four have already been published (seven in Henderson's 'Folk-Lore of the Northern Counties' and nine in Halliwell).

The editor has treated his material with great freedom, "eliminating a malodorous and un-English skunk" from one of the American stories, and a superfluous Gipsy from one of the English ones, reducing the dialect of a Suffolk tale, inserting an episode and expanding a conclusion in another tale, reducing adventurers from three to two, substituting riddles from an old collection for the poor ones of the original, transposing the incidents in No. xxx, cobbling No. xxxi out of three chap-book versions, building up No. xxxvi out of two stories, largely rewriting No. xxxvii, writing an introductory paragraph to No. xxxviii, changing the heroine's name in No. xxii, etc. Mr. Jacobs has very honestly acknowledged all these crimes, heinous in the eyes of a Folk-lorist, and has disarmed criticism by the promise to reproduce at some future time his originals with literal accuracy in a more extensive work on English Folk-tales. A more serious charge is that of rewriting those of his stories which existed only in "literary English," in the style which he supposes a "good old nurse" would adopt when telling fairy tales. As Mr. Jacobs himself is in doubt of his success in this proceeding, we need not say any more about it, except to remark that the example of the brothers Grimm, invoked by Mr. Jacobs, does not justify this mode of editing.

Of the work as a whole we can speak in terms of the highest praise; for the first time a general collection of English tales has been brought together, and the result only increases our regret at the lost treasures which can probably never be recovered. Some of the versions of well-known stories, such as "Tom Tit Tot," are not inferior to their relatives in other lands. The only criticism we should feel like making is that a number of the stories are very gruesome. We are told, however, that children like to be thrilled by such tales and know that it is all make-believe. It is easy to eliminate these stories in reading to younger children, and probably such as can read themselves will not be harmed.

Mr. Jacobs has greatly increased the value and interest of his book by the notes and references, which he has placed at the end, with the warning that "little boys and girls must not read any further." We hope some of them will, and receive an impulse which may some day lead them into one of the pleasantest paths of study. The notes are excellently planned, the English parallels are given with some fulness, and reference is briefly made to the foreign ones, with information where further variants can be found. One or two errors have crept in which may be corrected here: in No. ii., the reference to *Mélusine*, t. ii., should be t. ii., col. 352, and it contains a parallel not to No. ii., but to No. viii. No. xii. is a variant of No. xxiv., where should be cited the foreign versions in Cosquin ii., 76, and Crane, p. 370, note 32. To No. xv. might be added a reference to Goethe's "Der Zauberlehrling," the source of which is Lucian. The few misprints have probably been seen already by the editor, and will be corrected in the next edition, where the great Weimar oracle should be cited as Dr. Köhler; he ought to be professor of comparative storiology in the first university of the world, but, as a matter of fact, he is simply the librarian of the Ducal Library.

Much might be said in regard to the elaborate note, or rather excursus, on "Childe Roland," which concerns not only Shakspere, Milton, and Browning, and the very elemental stuff of folk-tales and ballads, but also the origin of elves, trolls, and fairies. We can here refer only to the interesting work from which this note and its illustrations are partly taken, 'The Testimony of Tradition,' by Mr. MacRitchie (London, 1890).

It would be unjust to dismiss 'The English Fairy Tales' without a word of praise for the admirable illustrations of Mr. John D. Batten.

An American Girl in London. By Sara Jeannette Duncan. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

We have already met the American Girl in London. Mr. James has introduced us to her more than once; she has wandered (unrecognizable, however, but for her label) through the three long, weary volumes of many an English novel. To the British novelist, her humor, her independence, her gayety are now as irresistible as her proverbial millions are supposed to be to the bankrupt British peer. But she has seldom seemed more amusing and natural than in Miss Duncan's new book. In her 'Social Departure,' Miss Duncan showed that to a keen observation she brought an even keener sense of humor and unflagging spirits. Her account of her journey around the world was not only readable, but immensely entertaining. It is not easy to do a good thing twice, and her 'American Girl in London' perhaps has not quite the freshness and spontaneity of her first volume; the humor in places is just a little forced; there is here and there too much of a Mark Twain tendency in the jokes. But for this comparison with her earlier work, however, it might seem more satisfactory.

The adventures of her American girl are strung upon a mere thread of a story. Miss Mamie P. Wick, of 4000 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, when circumstances prevent her "Poppa" and "Momma" from coming with her, starts alone for London; is there coldly received by her own relative in the town; is taken under the protection of an English woman of title, who finds her "the only really American girl I've come upon in the whole course of my travels"; with her new friend enjoys a London season; is made love to, without knowing it, by a young Englishman; and, when to her astonishment she finds herself received by his family as his betrothed, flies precipitately for home on the next steamer. But the story is really nothing. It is a mere excuse for the record of Miss Duncan's first experiences and impressions in London. These, apparently, she has written while they were still fresh in her memory—while the solidity and stability of London buildings, the permanence and security of London institutions, still were a source of wonder and delight; while that unmistakable smell of London which we greet with renewed affection every time we return to the great metropolis, was for her still "done up in the present tense"; while a ride in a hansom or on the top of a 'bus was still a novelty. She seldom fails to see the humors of London and London life, always better appreciated by an American than an Englishman; she but rarely misses its true character. With her sight-seeing, with her visits to Westminster and the Temple, we could have dispensed. It is here the humor is most strained, the Mark Twain effects most aggressive. But her descriptions of typical London lodging-house interiors and landladies; of an "at home," with its silent groups and impossible music; of the London shops and the "elegant ladies-in-waiting," with their odious, endless refrain of *Moddam;* of the English young girl and the English young man; of the Royal Academy private view, and a dozen other social functions, are excellent. No one has ever better described the æsthetic gown that even yet lingers on among Socialists and Ibsenites—"the protest against conventionalism; very much gathered, and usually presenting itself in colors unattainable out of a London fog. It almost always went with a rather discouraged-looking lady having a bad complexion and hair badly done up; and invariably it dragged a little on one side."

Miss Duncan is less happy with her pathetic flower-woman, standing hatless and bonnetless near Charing Cross. Who that knows London does not know the inevitable big hat adorned with draggled feathers of the London flower-girl, one of the most characteristic features of the London streets? We doubt, too, very much if the imposing creature who keeps the door of the Métropole, where almost all the attendants are Germans, would have talked pure Cockney or demeaned himself by recommending a 'bus; while we are quite sure that an English girl, had she even known anything about it, would never have spoken of the American *mail* or the hotel *clerk*. In other places the English, as Miss Duncan gives and spells it, suggests Virginia rather than England. And is not "Great Scott!" wholly American? And is "pullin' our leg" really a common expression among Englishmen? These, however, are minor details.

The illustrations by Mr. F. H. Townsend are, as a rule, very good. The pen-and-ink drawings are more successful than the wash—that is, in the reproduction, for we are still waiting for the perfect tone-block. Mr. Townsend does not always follow the text as faithfully as he might. For example, the costume on page 5 is not that worn some twenty-five or thirty years ago; and the boots of the two girls on page 24 are hardly those suggested by the accompanying letterpress.

Life of Francis Higginson, First Minister in the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and Author of 'New England's Plantation' (1630). By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. ["Makers of America" Series.] Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. iv, 158.

The connection of Francis Higginson with the settlement of Massachusetts was so brief, and his previous life so unrecorded, that the materials for his biography suffice for a mere outline sketch. Under these necessary limitations Col. Higginson has succeeded in presenting a readable life of his ancestor. He has allowed contemporary documents and the older historians, like Morton and Mather, to tell the story in the main, connecting these excerpts by gracefully written comments. The method has its advantages, but the proportion of the story told by Col. Higginson seems unduly scanty; and, as he does not enter largely into criticism in his comments, the biography presents little that is not already familiar. Of the many obscure points concerning the early history of the Salem plantation, the writer has discussed none critically, and the larger problems, of which that settlement was but one at-

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tempt at solution, he evidently has considered outside the scope of his plan.

Col. Higginson gives us a brief account of the parentage and education of his progenitor; and, in default of any knowledge of the actual incidents of his college experiences beyond the dates of graduation at Cambridge, draws a graphic picture of university life three hundred years ago. The account of Higginson's ministerial career in England is taken from the 'Magnalia.' Excerpts, chiefly from the Massachusetts Company Records and Higginson's journal and letters, as given in Hutchinson's 'Collection,' tell the story of the transfer to American soil. The same extensive use is made of documents and of the older historians in describing the settlement of Higginson over his Salem flock, and the revolt of the conformist Brownes. The biography closes with a sketch of Higginson's family. In the course of the narrative Higginson's 'New England's Plantation' is reprinted from its third edition (1630), and place is found for the 'Generall Considerations for the Plantation in New England' without absolute denial that Winthrop may have been the author. The result of Col. Higginson's work is a vivacious little book.

It is to be regretted, however, that the writer has fallen into one serious error. He calls special attention to the covenant adopted by the Salem Church in 1629, and on pp. 80, 81, he gives what purports to be that document. But what Col. Higginson has reprinted from Mather is really the renewed covenant of 1636, without the preamble, and is, with the exception of a single sentence which is all that remains of the original symbol, the work in all probability of Hugh Peter, pastor of the Salem Church from 1636 to 1641. The writer has erred in good company in this matter, but it is none the less an error. No question in New England ecclesiastical history was more debated thirty years ago than that of the original Salem covenant. The late Joseph Felt maintained—it would seem largely under the stress of polemic considerations—that a *Direction*, prepared not far from 1665 by John Higginson, son of the hero of our biography, preserved the essential form of the original symbol. On the other hand, the learned Judge White contended, in his 'New England Congregationalism,' that the covenant as given by Col. Higginson is the original. But both were mistaken, and no writer has more clearly perceived their mistake than a late pastor of the Salem church, Charles W. Upham, whose 'Address at the Re-dedication of the First Church, in Salem, Mass.,' December 8, 1867,' Col. Higginson cites, though without observing this point, in the paragraph following his text of the Salem covenant. Upham holds that the original covenant consisted of a single sentence: "We covenant with the Lord, and one with another, and do bind ourselves in the presence of God, to walk together in all His ways, according as He is pleased to reveal Himself unto us, in His blessed word of truth" (Address, p. 29.) All that follows in the text printed by Col. Higginson is an addition of Hugh Peter's when the covenant was renewed.

This conclusion, which was based by Upham and others solely on internal evidence in the wording of the covenant itself, is made certain by testimony which all the writers on the controversy have overlooked. In a criticism of New England church usages published by William Rathband, London, 1644, under the title of 'A Briefe Narration,' two specimens of Puritan covenants are given (pp. 17-19). One of these he declares to be that renewed by the church at Rotterdam, Holland, "when Mr. H. P. [Hugh Peter] was made their Pastour"; the other is the "renewed" Salem covenant given by Col. Higginson. This passage from Rathband was reproduced by Hanbury ('Memorials,' ii, 309, 310). So great is the similarity of expression between the two documents given by Rathband that both must be from one source, and that the pen of Hugh Peter, pastor successively at Rotterdam and Salem. The original covenant of the Salem church resembled in brevity and simplicity those of the Boston and Charlestown churches; and the nine articles which are appended to it in the form published by Col. Higginson were the result of the disturbances which accompanied the departure of Roger Williams. The writer has fallen into another error on p. 82, where he implies that the covenant published by Upham in his 'Address' is different from that given in the biography under review. It is the same, with the addition of the renewal preamble.

The quotations from printed documents, while in the main correct, show occasional slips in the reproduction of spelling, but the only important errors noticed are on p. 32, where the quotation from the Massachusetts Company Records should read *intimation* instead of "information"; and on p. 115, where the third line of the passage from the same Records should read *Gouno'* instead of "Goun't." More material is the wrong citation from Young, 'Chronicles of Massachusetts,' on p. 47, which should be *Sept.* instead of "Nov."; and again on p. 112, where the date of the decision to transfer the patent and government to American soil is given as "August 29, 1630," instead of *1629*. The book is provided with a good index.

Under the Trees and Elsewhere. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

THIS is a companion volume to its author's 'My Study Fire,' which we had occasion to speak of as a pleasant collection of indoor reveries and firelight pictures, with a few notes on books and authors. Here we have outdoor sketches, and some readers will recall them from the columns of the *Christian Union*, in which they originally appeared. Mr. Mabie is less interesting as a rambler in the country than as a dreamer and book-lover. He is neither fresh enough for originality, nor observant and precise enough for science—that is to say, he has neither Thoreau's nor Burroughs's vein. His ground appears to be, in the main, sentiment, with an atmosphere (we had almost written a haze) of Emersonianism hanging vaguely over it. The earlier portion of the volume in particular lacks gist; one chapter is too like another, though the topics change. In fact, Mr. Mabie has more style than matter, and consequently wearies. The latter half is taken up with a curious mystification about the Forest of Arden and the Island of the "Tempest," in which the writer feigns himself travelling with his own *Rosalind*, and here he betrays that literary sensibility which at times overpowered his individuality in the earlier work. His obligation to "Ik Marvel" is obvious. There is, however, in these two idealistic papers something of the same weakness of fibre already noticed in the sketches from nature, but with it goes also a susceptibility and a warmth of the literary temperament which would reconcile many readers to worse defects than any here.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Prince of Good Fellows. American News Co. 50 cents.
Auringer, O. C. The Heart of the Golden Roan. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Barnard, Charles. First Steps in Electricity. Charles E. Merrill & Co. 75 cents.
Barr, Amelia E. The Beads of Tasmer. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Beal, E. A. The Information Readers. No. 1. Foods and Beverages. Boston School Supply Co. 60 cents.
Blaikie, J. A Text-Book of Geometrical Deductions. Book I. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.
Burton, Chas. V. An Introduction to Dynamics. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Cahill, Mabel E. Her Playthings, Men. Worthington Co.
Cahun, L. Hassan le Janissaire, 1516. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Caillard, E. M. Electricity. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Chemistry in Space. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Clowes, W. L. Black America. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Darwin, C. Geological Observations. D. Appleton & Co.
Davis, R. H. Gallegher, and Other Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Denison, Mary A. If She Will She Will. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Dix, M. The Authority of the Church. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Dole, C. F. The American Citizen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Edwards, G. M. The Iliad of Homer. Book XXIII. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Emery, F. Notes on English Literature. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Evans, L. J. Biblical Scholarship and Inspiration. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Finck, H. T. Spain and Morocco. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Gaullieur, H. Etudes Américaines. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.
Gladden, W. Who Wrote the Bible? Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Graves, C. A Field of Tares. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Guy Herndon; or, a Tale of Gettysburg. Bankers' and Brokers' Pub. Association. 25 cents.
Harlan, H. Grandison Mather. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Harper, W. R. Eight Books of Cæsar's Gallic War. American Book Co. $1.20.
The American Law Register. Vol. XXIX. Philadelphia: D. B. Canfield Co.
The Devil's Visit. Excelsior Publishing House. $1.
The Yellow Ribbon Speaker. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Uffelmann, J. Manual of the Domestic Hygiene of the Child. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Victor, W. German Pronunciation. Leipzig: O. R. Reisland; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 75 cents.
Wakeman, T. B. Ernest Haeckel. D. Appleton & Co.
Walpole, S. The Life of Lord John Russell. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Walpole, S. History of England. 6 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Warden, Florence. Pretty Miss Smith. United States Book Co. 25 cents.
Warner, C. D. Our Italy. Harper & Bros.
Wilson, Rev. J. M. Sermons. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Winslow, W. C. The Pilgrim Fathers in Holland. Boston: G. P. Smith.
Wright, Prof. G. F. Charles Grandison Finney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wright, L. Optical Projection. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Wright, Capt. A. M. Three Months with the New York *Herald*. William Beverley Harrison. $1.25.
Zola, E. Money. Chicago: Laird & Lee; Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.

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